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- Page 49 **Pain and Pleasure: A Study of Bodily Feelings**, by T. S. Szasz
Reviewed by J. K. ADAMS
- 51 **The Psychology of Careers**, by D. E. Super
Reviewed by J. G. DARLEY
- 52 **Group Psychotherapy: The Psycho-Analytic Approach**, by S. H. Foulkes and E. J. Anthony
Reviewed by J. D. FRANK
- 53 **Dynamics of Psychotherapy: The Psychology of Personality Change**, by P. M. Symonds
Reviewed by NICHOLAS HOBBS
- 55 **CP SPEAKS**
By the EDITOR
- 57 **Towards a Measure of Man: The Frontiers of Normal Adjustment**, by Paul Halmos
Reviewed by W. W. BIDDLE
- 58 **Selection of Management Personnel**, by M. J. Doohar and Elizabeth Marting (Eds.)
Reviewed by J. K. HEMPHILL
- 60 **The Invisible Curtain: Psychoanalytic Cases of Louis Montgomery**, by Joseph Anthony
The Death and Rebirth of Psychology: An Integrative Evaluation of Freud, Adler, Jung and Rank and the Impact of Their Culminating Insights on Modern Man, by Ira Progoff
Reviewed by O. H. MOWRER

(Continued on inside cover)

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CONTENTS—continued

- 62 **Psychotherapy: A Modern Theory and Practice**, by E. L. Phillips
Reviewed by M. B. FREEDMAN
- 63 **Animal Navigation**, by J. D. Carthy
Reviewed by H. E. ADLER
- 66 **Mastery of Stress**, by D. H. Funkenstein, S. H. King, and Margaret E. Drolette
Reviewed by R. S. LAZARUS
- 68 **Battle for the Mind: How Evangelists, Psychiatrists, Politicians and Medicine Men Can Change Your Beliefs and Behavior**, by William Sargant
Reviewed by E. H. SCHEIN
- 69 **Intelligence in the United States: A Survey with Conclusions for Manpower Utilization in Education and Employment**, by J. B. Miner
Reviewed by DOROTHY RANSOM
- 70 **Counseling and Psychotherapy with the Mentally Retarded: A Book of Readings**, by C. L. Stacey and M. F. DeMartino (Eds.)
Reviewed by WILLIAM SLOAN
- 71 **Personnel Management: Principles and Practice**, by C. H. Northcott
Reviewed by ALASTAIR HERON
- 72 **How Children Learn: An Educational Psychology**, by A. N. Frandsen
Reviewed by V. H. NOLL
- 74 **Disaster: A Psychological Essay**, by Martha Wolfenstein
Reviewed by S. B. WITHEY
- 76 **The Concept of Development: An Issue in the Study of Human Behavior**, by D. B. Harris (Ed.)
Reviewed by R. W. SPERRY
- 78 **FILMS**
ADOLPH MANOIL, Film Editor
- 79 **ON THE OTHER HAND**
- 80 **List of Books Received**

Books for review, review manuscripts, letters for publication, and correspondence concerning editorial matters should be sent to the Editor, Edwin G. Boring, Memorial Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge 38, Mass.

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An Analyst Looks at Feeling

Thomas S. Szasz

Pain and Pleasure: A Study of Bodily Feelings. New York: Basic Books, 1957. Pp. xvi + 301. \$5.50.

Reviewed by JOE K. ADAMS

Dr. Adams has been moving, via Wisconsin, Princeton, Bryn Mawr, and Stanford, from what is usually called general psychology to what is certainly called clinical psychology. He is now a clinical trainee in San Francisco and Palo Alto VA hospitals in California. He is an eclectic if ever there was one, for, besides this shift from general to clinical psychology, he has both written a book on statistics and also has a strong interest in psychoanalytic types of inferences.

DR. SZASZ took his psychoanalytic training at the Chicago Institute and was a member of its staff for five years. Currently he is Professor of Psychiatry at the State University of New York at Syracuse. He regards his work as based largely on that of Freud, Fenichel, and Schilder, but he also acknowledges debts to two contemporary analysts, W. R. D. Fairbairn and I. Macalpine. He shows an admirable willingness to extend, revise, or discard orthodox psychoanalytic dicta, and his book is relatively free of technical psychoanalytic language.

Szasz's stated purpose is to present what he considers a *psychological* approach to pain, pleasure, and bodily feelings, as opposed to the psychophysi-

cal and psychophysiological approaches which are the dominant ones in medicine and which he feels go hand in hand with the false dichotomy of 'organic' versus 'psychogenic' pain. He maintains that this dichotomous way of conceptualizing pain represents a form of dualism and interactionism, which modern empiricism has shown to be untenable. Psychosomatic research has not helped the situation; in fact, it has "muddled up the philosophical problem involved by burying it in an increasing volume of 'data' on psychophysical interaction." He quotes with disapproval Boring's principle, stated a propos pain (as well as in several other contexts familiar to psychologists), that certainly the first thing to do for a sense is to show how sensation depends upon stimulation, and he maligns psychophysics by implying that it deals only with "the physics of the human eye or ear." After buttressing his philosophical position with quotations from Russell, Ryle, Langer, and others, the author presents his own approach, which deals with pain, bodily feelings, and pleasure in terms of their symbolic meanings. His approach is, as he insists, a *communication* approach, in which the questions are continually asked: Who is communicating what to whom? Why is this com-

munication being made, and why is it being made in this particular way?

Szasz observes that, although pain may mean simply "There is something wrong here," or "Stop moving this part of the body" (and here he admits the usefulness of the psychophysical and psychophysiological approaches), in our complex society pain is likely to mean something much more complicated. For example, pain may be a reassurance that the body part is still there, it may be an accusation against the physician ("See, you haven't helped me"), it may be an assurance of penance ("See how I am suffering for my sins"), it may be a desperate cry for help, or it may even be a warning of the danger of loss of some outside object (person). Szasz tries to show how these formulations help to make sense of the symptoms presented by several patients whom he treated. For example, he reasons that the severe pain of a girl in her late teens, both of whose parents had unexpectedly died, was, first, an appeal for help addressed to her older sisters and then to her physician; second, an aggressive, frustrated complaint and accusation; and third, a signal warning against another loss, the loss of her body, thus protecting her against being taken by surprise again. Szasz goes a step further and says that her body also functioned as a transference object, representing both the mother and the father and thus recreating the unsolved traumatic situation in an unconscious attempt at mastery.

Bodily feelings in general are handled theoretically in a similar way. The body is considered as an object vis-à-vis the ego. The conscious ego has one no-

tion of the body, while the unconscious facets of the ego have correspondingly different 'bodies' with which they deal. The optimal relation of ego to body in adult life obtains when awareness of the existence and functioning of the body remains just below the threshold of consciousness. Increased interest in the body may take a socially approved form (as in the interest women commonly show in their physical appearance) or a socially disapproved form (as in the apprehensions and convictions about the body labeled as 'hypochondriacal'). Decreased interest may also be approved (as in a stoical lack of concern for pain or illness) or disapproved (as in schizophrenic self-mutilation).

Szasz is not concerned about the dimension of social approval; he also minimizes the importance of the presence or absence of an 'organic' basis for the increase or decrease in interest. He is concerned about the psychological meanings involved. His discussion of the category *hypochondriasis* in this connection is particularly illuminating, especially when he relates it to bodily feelings in schizophrenia, to paranoia, and to phantom body parts and phantom pain. For example, he points out the formal similarity between the conviction of bodily disease and a paranoid delusion of persecution. The hypochondriacal conviction is accompanied by a feeling of helplessness vis-à-vis the body, even to the point of feeling persecuted by the discomforts it inflicts on the ego. This feeling of helplessness recreates the childhood situation of feeling helpless, yet safe, when in contact with the parents. The paranoid delusion also makes the individual feel helpless, yet safe, at least in the sense of being in contact with the loved (and feared) object. In hypochondriasis the function of painful symptoms may be to maintain contact with the body (representing the parents), just as the paranoid delusion maintains contact with the object. In his discussion of the function of hypochondriacal convictions (as opposed to apprehensions and doubts), Szasz points out that in the famous Schreber case the patient at the beginning of his psychosis had doubts (and presumably fears, though



THOMAS S. SZASZ

Szasz does not say so) about changing from a man into a woman, whereas during his so-called recovery he was certain that he was a woman,—in fact, God's wife.

Szasz says that schizophrenic self-mutilation is usually accompanied by relief and tranquility and not by pain, and he accounts for this by hypothesizing that, in the ego's notion of the body, the part has already been lost; the mutilation is a way of eliminating the discrepancy between body and body-concept with which the individual is continually confronted.

Phantom body parts are treated as analogues to mourning; in the first case the object lost is a part of the body; in the second, another person. Both processes are ways of re-experiencing the trauma in a gradual manner, thus making an adaptation that cannot be made suddenly. Phantom pain, on the other hand, is compared with paranoid feelings of persecution; the persistence of both is accounted for in terms of their functional value, as explained previously.

The discussions of pain and bodily feelings seem to me the most valuable part of the book; with the exception of the chapter on phantom parts and phantom pain, they have appeared previously as papers in various psychiatric journals.

Szasz is unable to do as much for a theory of pleasure as he has for pain and bodily feelings, but, as he points out, he has much less in the literature to build upon. Then, too, sadly enough, there are few clinical observations that are so directly relevant. This part of the book does not have the sparkle characterizing the earlier part; it is more in the nature of quiet reflections. Those, however, who think that all psychoanalysts wish to 'reduce' all pleasure to activity of one or another of the openings in the body should note this:

To regard all pleasure as fundamentally a matter of need reduction (of an erotic, bodily nature) is to force all later symbolic complexities back into the framework of its earliest conceptual prototype. . . . We believe that man has a fundamental need for object contact and that this need appears not entirely reducible to a need for physiological sustenance. The need for objects appears to us rather as something *analogous* to the need for food, water, and so forth.

The philosophical discussion concerning the mind-body 'problem,' considered by the author an integral part of his contribution, left me unconvinced. Szasz seems to regard it as a self-evident truth that observations and inferences made in psychology (as he conceives it) and observations and inferences made in physics and physiology "cannot be brought into a 'causal relationship'." In this belief he is certainly not alone; it is a modern form of an old precept by Leibnitz and many others since. Nevertheless, to some of us, it is by no means self-evident. Fortunately, however, Szasz's contributions can stand without dependence on philosophy.

Some psychologists will reject this book as esoteric, unverified fantasy. I believe they will be making a serious mistake. Szasz does not prove his points but he has much to say that is plausible, informative, and stimulating. Furthermore, many of the processes which Szasz describes in a clinical context bear an interesting and close relation to processes being studied by psychologists in very different contexts and with very different theoretical orientations. In my opinion this author and this book make a valuable contribution to a little-explored area.

Another Look at the World of Work

Donald E. Super

The Psychology of Careers. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957. Pp x + 362. \$5.75.

Reviewed by JOHN G. DARLEY

Dr. Darley, who, except for one war, has been around the University of Minnesota for a quarter of a century, is Professor of Psychology at that university, executive secretary of its Laboratory for Research in Social Relations, and Associate Dean of its Graduate School. He has long been involved in student counseling. In the big world he is perhaps best known as Editor of the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, and during the last twenty years he has been author or co-author of half a dozen books on personnel work, jobs for men and women, measurement of vocational interests, and student counseling.

THE bibliography of this book makes manifest the fact that Super and his students have published extensively in the field of vocational guidance. Many of the earlier themes reappear now, clothed in somewhat different vocabulary but still largely derivative and descriptive. Two of Super's books represented a substantial contribution to the field: *Avocational Interest Patterns* (1940), a research study of an important theoretical problem, and *Appraising Vocational Fitness* (1949), an exhaustive handbook of information about psychological tests and their use in counseling. The present volume unfortunately does not rank with these earlier works.

It is presented as a replacement for, but not a revision of, the author's *Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment* (1942). "It incorporates the results of significant recent research and theory development by psychologists, sociologists,

and economists." It stresses the importance of incorporating the findings of developmental psychology and occupational sociology in the substrate upon which guidance has built in the past: differential psychology, personality theory, and studies of occupations and occupational trends. The "trait theory" of guidance, the "actuarial method" developed for its implementation under a "factorial approach," are to be replaced by the "theory of life patterns" involving "extrapolation based on thematic analysis." *Vocational development* is the new term, replacing *vocational adjustment*. Super admits that the thematic-extrapolative method "has not so far been demonstrated to give better results than the actuarial," although the reader may infer that the Career Pattern Study, now being done under Super's direction, will be the definitive test of the new method. The present text does not clearly define the presumed difference between extrapolation and prediction.

Super's presentation of his new method appears in Chapter 13, in which he examines present criteria of vocational success and satisfaction, finds them wanting, and sets forth the improved methods and definitions being used in the Career Pattern Study. Insufficient information about the new metric is provided; no judgment is possible at this time about its utility. In this chapter, however, Super provides his 'redefinition' of vocational guidance and development: "[It] is the process of helping a person to develop and accept an integrated and adequate picture of himself and of his role in the world

of work, to test this concept against reality, and to convert it into a reality, with satisfaction to himself and benefit to society." For those who have waded through much of the literature in this field, this redefinition will have evocative and derivative overtones.

The contribution of developmental psychology, it appears, derives primarily from Charlotte Buehler's 1933 monograph, *Der menschliche Lebenslauf als psychologisches Problem*; her five life stages apply by direct analogy to the stages of vocational development. Recent economic theory is represented by Eli Ginzberg's writings on occupational choice and by the occupational mobility studies of Palmer and of Parnes. Occupational sociology is included by references to the work of Miller and Form on career patterns, and by citing some of the studies of social stratification and mobility, such as Hollingshead's *Elm-town's Youth* and the Warner studies. Additionally, certain terms and constructs recur in the new dynamic of vocational development—adolescence as a period of developing self concepts, role-playing as a learning process, reality testing, implementation of a self concept. These are transliterations to modern personality theory, but they remain essentially descriptive and they add no great precision to the counselor's daily practices or methods.

A comparison of this volume with its earlier counterpart is inescapable.



DONALD E. SUPER

Both texts contain discussions of intelligence, aptitudes, interests, and personality traits as they relate to educational and vocational outcomes. These topics are far better handled in Super's own 1949 volume; in the most recent text they are too superficially treated to be useful. In the new text, the chapter on economic factors in vocational development is identical with the chapter in the 1942 text, with the addition of a few trivial new sentences. A discussion of the transition from school to work appears in both volumes in highly similar form. The role of the family in vocational development is given slightly more extensive treatment in the new text, although it appears in the same essential form in both books. In the earlier volume, Buehler's work appears primarily in one chapter, whereas in the later volume it is threaded through four chapters as the underlying theoretical contribution, buttressed by elliptical references to other source material in developmental psychology and by references to Ginzberg's work on occupational choice stages.

Part 1 of the new book deals with individual motivations for working, work as a determinant of status and life styles, classification systems for occupations, and occupational life spans. This material is more extensive than the coverage in the earlier text. Like all the rest of us, Super offers his own classification system in which occupations are grouped by levels, fields, and types of enterprise. This is an interesting extension of current systems of logical classification, but there are no supporting data clearly indicating its superiority over the many other systems of socioeconomic scaling that already exist.

In summary we may note that the present volume is a slightly more sophisticated version of the 1942 text. The professional reader, contrary to the statement on the dust jacket, will find it too generalized and discursive to be useful; the beginning student will still find it necessary to track down much source material that is heavily abridged in Super's citations. The book invites comparison with Anne Roe's recent *Psychology of Occupations* (1956); her book is more focused, systematic, and consistent.

Before we can understand clearly the psychology of work and of occupations, considerable research remains to be done, particularly on the motivational and social factors associated with work and career development. A much-needed first step would be an adequate synthesis of existing data. Super's book attempts this synthesis, but it falls well short of the standards he has reached in his own earlier writings.

Uninhibited Conversation

S. H. Foulkes and E. J. Anthony

Group Psychotherapy: The Psycho-Analytic Approach. Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1957. Pp. 263. \$85.

Reviewed by JEROME D. FRANK

who is Associate Professor of Psychiatry at the Johns Hopkins University's School of Medicine, Psychiatrist-in-Charge of the Out-Patient Department of the Johns Hopkins Hospital, and chairman of the Committee on Research of the American Group Psychotherapy Association. He was early influenced by Kurt Lewin and then later, after he had got his medical training, he brought the Lewinian concepts to bear on the interpersonal relations of group psychotherapy. With Florence Powdermaker he is the author of Group Psychotherapy (Harvard University Press, 1953). He thinks that you have to conduct psychotherapy to study it, so he does both. Just now he says he is concerned with the "placebo effect" as a way of clarifying the roles of the patient and physician in influencing the process and the outcome of treatment.

THE growth of group psychotherapy has been one of the most significant phenomena of the postwar psychotherapeutic scene. For years kept alive by a small handful of enthusiasts, since the war it has spread to all psychiatric settings and types of patients and is practiced by all schools of psychothera-

pists. This increasing popularity of group therapy is part of a general proliferation of small-group activities, a trend which probably reflects the craving of members of our increasingly anonymous culture for "uninhibited conversation"—that is C. A. Mace's happy term—and intimate interaction with a few other persons.

The extension of group therapeutic techniques has unfortunately not been accompanied by significant gains in clarification of method or conceptualization, or by any rise in the scientific level of information about it. In spite of the fact that both its parent fields—group dynamics and individual psychotherapy—have produced findings and concepts which approach scientific respectability, the literature on group psychotherapy continues to consist largely of descriptions of its use in various settings, and loose theoretical speculations. The book under review is no exception. It appears as a paperback, indicating its hope of reaching a wide audience of both specialists and interested laymen, and offers a description of the authors' practices interwoven with considerable theoretical commentary.

The senior author is a psychoanalyst who has practiced and taught group therapy for over a decade and who wrote one of the first books on the subject in 1948. The junior author is a child psychiatrist, one with research training who has worked with groups of mothers and children. It is disappointing to have to report that the senior author's contributions represent no significant advance either in data reported or in conceptualization over his earlier work, though his speculations have become more wide-ranging.

THE descriptive sections are interestingly written in a frankly anecdotal fashion. The examples are mainly culled from the notes made by a group patient who was a novelist, and they make up in vividness what they admittedly lack in objectivity. The recommendations for the actual practice of group therapy hew close to the main line of accepted practice and would arouse little dissent from most practitioners—with one minor exception.

Foulkes discourages meetings of patients outside the group. Many Americans, perhaps reflecting the greater 'groupiness' of our culture, include meetings without the leader as an integral part of their therapy.

One of the most valuable sections is a lucid and succinct review by the junior author of the theoretical positions of leading group therapists. Some of these statements give a clearer exposition of a particular therapist's point of view than the writings of the proponent himself.

The scholarliness and balance of the survey and the descriptive sections led the reviewer to expect a theoretical synthesis of equal merit, but he was disappointed. As psychoanalysts, the authors regard the uncovering of hidden motives and feelings as the core of therapy, and see in "free-floating discussion" the analogue of free association in individual therapy. Recognizing the inadequacy of traditional psychoanalytical concepts to encompass the phenomena of group therapy, they bring in some Lewinian field-theoretical concepts and season with a dash or two of communication theory, but the mixture fails to jell.

In addition the theoretical presentation is irritating because it pretends to a depth and rigor which it does not possess. The tone is dogmatic and the same points are made repeatedly, without evidence, as if to exemplify the dictum of the Bellman in "The Hunting of the Snark": "What I tell you three times is true." Commonplaces are presented as profound truths and diagrams are used freely in the usually mistaken belief that they clarify the text. Metaphors are used freely and uncritically, sometimes to good effect, but often to the contrary. To liken a group session to a "hall of mirrors where an individual is confronted with various aspects of his social, psychological, or body image" is helpful, but to compare the "collective unconscious" to "a condenser covertly storing up emotional charges generated by the group, and discharging them under the stimulus of some shared group event" is not.

The therapeutic group is repeatedly extolled as presenting wonderful re-

search opportunities, which indeed it does, but no results of research are given. The crucial question of evaluation of the results of treatment is, moreover, completely ignored.

In all these respects this book is no worse than most descriptions of psychotherapeutic methods by their advocates, and it is better than many. The exposition becomes disappointing when the authors' scholarship, wide experience, and apparent methodological and theoretical sophistication have led the reader to expect something better.

While many American readers will be impatient with the book's loose organization and its leisurely pace and while technically trained psychologists will surely be irritated for the reasons already given, the volume does, nevertheless, represent a mature, well-informed, thoughtful presentation of current thinking about group psychotherapy and a clinically sound, readable description of one of the dominant forms of group therapeutic practice. As such the text warrants the serious attention of the nonspecialist who would like to find out something about this popular and promising form of psychotherapy.



Therapeutic Wisdom With a Variance

Percival M. Symonds

Dynamics of Psychotherapy: The Psychology of Personality Change.
Vol. II: *Process.* New York: Grune & Stratton, 1957. Pp. xlv + 175-398
[224]. \$6.50.

Reviewed by NICHOLAS HOBBS

Dr. Hobbs has been these last half-dozen years Professor of Psychology and Chairman of the Division of Human Development at the George Peabody College in Nashville, Tennessee. If you add up his affiliations with divisions of the American Psychological Association, he appears as a social, educational, gerontological, counseling, clinical psychologist, a person who wishes his scientific work to become immediately useful to others. He says of himself that he is interested in problem-solving and the application of the methods of psychology to education, mental health, and psychotherapy, with a special concern about the parent-child relationships of bright adolescents.

In 1923, The American Psychological Association, meeting in Madison, Wisconsin, considered the problem of the certification of consulting psychologists, debated membership requirements, increased the dues from two dollars to

five, heard a symposium on the Contributions of Freudianism to Psychology, and elected to membership Percival M. Symonds, a new PhD, then Professor of Education and Psychology at the University of Hawaii. The minutes note: "Thirty-nine papers were presented. . . five [of which dealt with] clinical and educational psychology, the last two classifications overlapping so as to be indistinguishable." It was an auspicious year for the beginning of the career of a man who has made substantial contributions to both educational and clinical psychology, as well as to the development of psychology as a profession. Professor Symonds, now of Teachers College, Columbia University, published four papers in the year in which he received his doctorate, a level of productivity which he has steadily maintained since. He is known today particularly as a contributor to and a skillful interpreter of personality theory and clinical psychology.

In this latest work, an ambitious one, Symonds draws on his years of clinical experience and his scholarly acquaintance with the writings of other theorists to fashion a "comprehensive survey of the principles, process, and procedures of psychotherapy." Three volumes are being used in the task. Volume I, which was reviewed by Bertram Forer in *CP*, (February 1957, 2, 39f.) is concerned primarily with the nature of psychoneurosis and the challenge it presents to the therapist. The present volume focuses on the process of psychotherapy. Volume III will deal with therapeutic procedures. In total they will constitute an important if not entirely satisfactory exegesis of contemporary therapeutic theory and practice from the point of view of an experienced psychologist.

In his treatment of the process of psychotherapy, Symonds discusses five major aspects of the therapeutic enterprise—transference, resistance, abreaction, insight, and identification—and then laces his argument together by occasional paragraphs and a helpful chapter that call attention to the interrelationships among these several familiar phenomena. His method is to follow definition by illustrations of the manner in which a phenomenon exhibits itself in psychotherapy, and then to provide interpretations from his own reflections and from commentaries of other writers. Frequently he cites the views of other expositors of therapeutic theory, a practice which will acquaint the student (the volumes are intended to be a text for students as well as a manual for practitioners) with a wide range of authors, impress him with the complexity of the phenomena described, and probably evoke some awe at the ingenuity of explanations that have been developed by various writers to account for the intricacies of the therapeutic process. Both student and practitioner will appreciate a twenty-four page annotated bibliography.

Symonds' point of view is essentially that of contemporary gentle psychoanalysis, freshened here and there by ideas drawn from Rogers, Shoben, Shaw, Magaret, Dollard and Miller, and other psychologists, but in important

places still distinctively Symonds. This is not a work of simple collation but one which advances therapeutic theory by Symonds' own creative interpretation of the process. One of the important places where personal conviction shines through scholarly reporting to clarify a point appears in the statement of the central thesis of the book that "abreaction is the essential agent of psychotherapy." Insight, so frequently assumed to be the chief agent of change in psychotherapy, is properly identified, to the reviewer's thinking, as a consolidating operation that becomes possible (or even inevitable?) when the client has found new and more appropriate ways of responding to cues that formerly elicited avoidant responses. This formulation makes for a much neater tie-in with learning theory than is possible with an hypothesis of insight-as-change-agent. Symonds is quite explicit on this point though not always consistent (see, for example, pp. 252 ff.), but then it would be a neat trick for any member of our rationalistic culture not to drop a stitch here and there in knitting such an argument.

SYMONDS' book invites speculation as to why, thirty-four years after the Madison symposium, psychoanalysis and psychology have not been more effectively conjoined in therapeutic theory. Freudianism has certainly enriched psychology, but this book raises the question of whether or not psychology has much influenced psychoanalysis. Is the lack in Symonds' description, or does he accurately reflect psychoanalysis as a kind of literary psychology little concerned with objective verification? Perhaps it is a bit of both. Though the book is loaded with intriguing speculations about the process of psychotherapy, based on clinical observation, there is little evidence of movement in the direction of the kind of conceptual orderliness necessary for the operation of a quantitative and experimental science, or even for a good clinical theory. And while an experimental science of psychoanalytic therapy, in the tradition of psychology, may still be far in the future, Symonds might have been expected to hasten this development by

presenting at least a sound natural history of the analytic therapeutic process. A movement toward a more precise taxonomy would be helpful and reassuring, yet the author does not exact order in a field which often seems to invite personal invention and where contradiction is seldom made apparent by critical test. His tolerance of ambiguity will probably be as unacceptable to the disciplined analyst as to the psychologist.

Of course, one might argue that precision in definition and classification may stifle such clinical inventiveness as is evidenced in the following protean definitions of abreaction: "Abreaction means reaction with release of feeling and excitement in a way hitherto impossible because of repression," "abreaction is a rejection," "abreaction is a surrender," "abreaction is the essential agent in psychotherapy," "abreaction is the therapeutic agent for the simpler and milder neuroses," and "abreaction is identical with the transference response." Most of the major concepts of the book are as loosely defined. Such formulations enjoy the very real advantages that poetic description has over operational definition. They may make for clinical communication if not for scientific sense, and clinical communication is what Symonds has set out to achieve. Certainly he has succeeded in illuminating if not in ordering the therapeutic process, in one psychoanalytic idiom, by means of a book that may be quite useful to psychologists though it often may seem not to be psychology at all.

While there are major conceptions which an experienced instructor will want to question or clarify, Symonds is such a knowledgeable and skilled writer that the student will find his book easy to read and filled with provocative observations on the process of psychotherapy.

A query about the tactics and economy of bookmaking: what is the advantage of packaging this work in three volumes instead of one volume with three parts? The first two volumes, composed with extravagant headings and spacings, total together 400 pages of text and cost together \$12.00. The price seems excessive.



PERCEPTION COMES OF AGE

Back in the 'teens and 'twenties, when the old ones of us were only just old enough to be giving seminars for the still younger ones, we used to wonder why every seminar, whatever subject had been chosen, turned out to be about the same topic. The crucial words used were various, but the underlying concept seemed to be pretty much the same. What were the words? *Einstellung*, *set*, *determining tendency*, *Aufgabe*, *instruction*, *attitude*, *drive*, *need*, *wish* (Freudian), *purpose*, *intention*, the *dynamic principle*—that's a dozen; there must have been others. Why always these—or better why always this? Because—thinks *CP* taking a backward look at the primordial ooze from which it emerged—the dynamic thing, the motivational *plus* in conduct, was what made the difference between psychology with the *plus* in and natural science without the *plus*. Remember Thomas Reid (1764), who distinguished between sensation, as given by Nature, and perception which has in it the cognitive *plus*, a special bonus added by the Creator in order to get man made more nearly in His own image? So perception might seem to be the key concept for psychology, and, although Wundt tried to reduce it to association and mental compounding, still there remained the uneasy feeling that psychology's crucial concept was not yet caught in the scientific web. In the 1920s Carl Murchison tried without success to get a chapter on perception for his *Handbook of General Experimental Psychology* (or was it perhaps for the earlier *Foundations*?). There was a problem there, yet no one for sure knew just what body of fact belonged to perception. Since the 1850s it had been clear that attitude affects the optical illusions.

Well, the problem, still with us, has advanced considerably. We keep hear-

ing and hearing about perception from every direction, perhaps especially nowadays in social psychology. *Social perception* is either the perception of social relations or it is perception as determined by social relations. *CP* thought, therefore, to take a look around its Lying-In Department to see whether it could predict any birthdays for perceptual neonates. Lots of embryos, it turns out, but only one book all ready to be born.

S. H. Bartley's *Principles of Perception*, with Harper's the obstetrician, is so nearly ready to startle the world with its cry that *CP* may need to put pink ribbon on this notice. It is a text for use by a class in perception, a text considering the organism's contacts with its surroundings and thus including social perception as well as the more Bartleyan sensory materials. It aims to be rigorous, to use a different word for a different concept and not to leave definitions to the vagaries of context. And let's, says Bartley, let's talk about *impingement* for the way the outside world attacks the organism, so as to get away from the bother of the generic stimulus that does not in the particular case stimulate at all.

Hans Wallach at Swarthmore is working on a book that might be called *Researches in Visual Perception* until he thinks up a less somber title. It has no publisher yet and hence no predictable birthday. It will be a broad book, dealing with the perceptual constancies, space perception, perceived motion, perceptual organization, and the effects of past experience; and it will also be a narrow book because it leaves out sensory processes, psychophysics, and such physiologically oriented matters as flicker and visual aftereffect.

Then there is started an undergraduate textbook that leaves in some of what Wallach leaves out and then goes

further. The book has three authors, having been conceived when they were all together at Michigan: W. H. Dember, now at Yale, A. B. Kristofferson, now at Cincinnati, and C. J. Smith, still at Michigan. It will cover sensation and psychophysics and end up, they think, in such topics as the perception of similarity, causality, and probability. Maybe esthetics too. No publisher yet, no date, but some chapters written. See how perception can take in any kind of cognition?

Next is W. H. C. Prentice on *Perception* in the Krach and Crutchfield "core series" being tended by Alfred Knopf (see *CP*, July 1956, 1, 209). He notes ruefully that Swarthmore has gone and made him a dean. Those with social perception will know what that means. But he is hopeful and determined. Wasn't Plato a dean?

Perhaps the least advanced of these embryos is the readings in cognition that two other Michigan men are working on: David Birch and R. B. Zajonc (pronounced Zience, like Science). This fact that you cannot tell the difference between cognition and perception has been pretty clear since Thomas Reid got us sensitized to perception's cognitive *plus*. Remember James Mill and the Idea of Everything? Don't you perceive Everything when you cognize it?

CYBERNETIC JUSTICE

The readers of this journal do not see the 1900-word *Comments to Reviewers*, which every reviewer receives, which most reviewers study, and which outlines *CP*'s policies more definitely than this page has ever done. This hortatory essay contains the following admonition:

Good criticism requires tact, objectivity, and a sense of good taste. Personal aspersions are taboo. Criticize the text, the ideas, the logic, the accuracy, not the author. Always try to see how nearly the author has realized his own aspiration, whether you approve of the aspiration or not.

In short, criticism should be *ad verbum*, not *ad hominem*. It is more important to note whether the author achieved his own goals than to say how much you disapprove of his goals. A letter in this

issue of *CP* makes these same two points as it dissents from two critical reviews that *CP* published in 1957.

CP is delighted to have this letter for it is an instance of the 'hunting' servomechanism of criticism and counter-criticism that *CP* is struggling to promote. The only truth toward which *CP* can lead its readers is the limit upon which opinion and dissent from opinion and dissent from dissent converge. *CP* wishes to maintain the free market of opinion, with the victor, if any, him who sells his wares.

CP has space for this counterarguing, but not instantaneous space. The author waits until his review is published to know his fate, unless the reviewer sends him a copy of the review. The reviewer who is to be admonished for error does not know what he is in for until the wagging finger is exposed in a later issue of *CP*. Then there has to be another lag before the dissent to the dissent can come out, and so on. Is there any better way? If you hold up criticism to get sincere dissent, do you not have to hold up the dissent for the possible counter-dissent, and that for the rejoinder, which must then wait for the riposte? What is fair? When can you break into this conversational tennis? At present *CP* keeps mum when it has dissent in hand until publication has occurred. Then it tells the target that he may reply or not as he chooses, depending on his personality and on his judgment as to whether a firm declaration or a deadly silence (no shouts in *CP*) will be the more impressive to *CP*'s readers—or to posterity—or conceivably to both. Is this all right? *CP* has an ear cocked, not for complaints, but for information as to how better to achieve this difficult goal of cybernetic justice.

BARGAIN HANDBOOK

Want a handbook of visual and auditory psychophysics with chapters on stress, morale, leadership, selection, and training tacked on, many of the chapters by America's top experts, all for only \$3.00, or \$2.25 if you don't get the supplement? To tell you about this opportunity *CP* breaks its rules, for it is an old volume of 1949 (supplement is 1955 though) and *CP* is going to

list some of its content, a form of exposition from which all reviewers are sternly interdicted. The trouble is that these volumes are lying around the National Academy of Sciences just because no one knows about them, and they ought to be in libraries for use.

These are the two items, both written in 1949 but the supplement held up for publication until declassified in 1955:

A Survey Report on Human Factors in Undersea Warfare. By the Panel on Psychology and Physiology, Committee on Undersea Warfare. Washington, D. C.: National Academy of Sciences—National Research Council, 1949. Pp. x + 541. \$2.25.

Supplement to same. 1954. Pp. iv + 92. \$.75.

There are 27 chapters. *CP* lists here the 14 that seem to it of more general interest, the chapters that include general discussions of basic principles without necessarily referring to submarine life at all. In many cases the distinction of the author guarantees the quality of the text.

A. Chapanis. *How We See: a Summary of Basic Principles.* 58 pp.

C. H. Wedell and L. A. Riggs. *The Night Lookout.* 16 pp.

W. R. Garner. *Auditory Signals.* 18 pp.

W. D. Neff and W. R. Thurlow. *Auditory Discrimination in Sonar Operation.* 14 pp.

M. H. Abrams. *Voice Communications: Personnel and Phraseology.* 10 pp.

G. A. Miller. *Voice Communications: Effects of Masking and Distortion.* 6 pp.

W. S. Verplanck. *Visual Communication.* 20 pp.

F. K. Berrien. *Relation of Noise to Habitability of Submarines.* 12 pp.

M. A. Tinker. *Lighting and Color* (in relation to habitability). 18 pp.

J. E. Birren. *Motion Sickness: Its Psychophysiological Aspects.* 24 pp.

C. W. Darrow and C. E. Henry. *Psychophysiology of Stress.* 24 pp.

E. A. Haggard. *Psychological Causes and Results of Stress.* 22 pp.

R. L. French. *Morale and Leadership.* 28 pp.

L. J. Cronbach and W. D. Neff. *Selection and Training.* 26 pp.

That's not all. There are chapters on optical instruments, the use of printed materials, maps, and charts, the design

and arrangement of operating equipment, temperature and humidity, sleep and wakefulness, but the main point is that here is a lot of competent fundamental information, written by experts and available for very little money, and nobody knows about it. It's an almost secret cache, with everybody invited to help himself for a small fee.

GOLDEN SPLITS

Elsewhere in this issue Michael Wertheimer drags naked behind his chariot a split infinitive that he found—yes, he did—in *CP*. He wonders, therefore, if this is the golden split that *CP* has been dreaming of finding all its life. No, *CP* bows its head in shame at this split. Nevertheless the Argus-eyed Colorado's observation returned *CP* to its restless quest. "To half boil a lobster," people say. No, that should be one word: "To half-boil a lobster." But here, if you will look, is a serious contender, discovered within 60 yards of *CP*'s own sanctum in Bergen and Cornelia Evans' *A Dictionary of Contemporary American Usage* (Random House, 1957) as they discuss, with no thought about splitting at all, the meaning of *abjure*. "*Abjure* . . . means to solemnly forswear, to renounce, to repudiate." See? "I solemnly forswear"; "he asked me to solemnly forswear"; "he asked me solemnly to forswear." Here you have to split. The other form makes the reader blink. What a beautiful discovery! Nunc dimittis.

BOOKS TO COME

By late spring John Wiley hopes to publish Fritz Heider's *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations*, a book on which the author has been working for fifteen years, two Guggenheims, and one Ford Foundation. That is how long it takes to understand two people's understanding each other, for the discussion is mostly about the two-person group. A and B are together. How does A know B is observing him? How does he know about B's wishes and intentions? How can he tell when B is pleased and how does he know how to please him? When B is successful, what does that do to A? What makes them like each other when they do, or dislike

each other? This account is intended to be a wise, tough-minded modelling of common sense, common sense aged in Heider for a decade and a half. One of the more scholarly members of CP's entourage vouches for the wisdom, says that the book is something to watch for.

Another Wiley book due out this spring is Warren S. Torgerson's *Theory and Method of Scaling*. The book has been prepared for the Committee on

Scaling of the Social Science Research Council and aims to bring together the principal methods of psychophysics, psychometrics, and social psychology that have been used in the last thirty years, some of them well known, others almost lost in obscure places. It was a two-year job that took six years to do. The field can stand uncluttering. CP hopes that Torgerson has succeeded.

—E. G. B.

Sociological Synthesis

Paul Halmos

Towards a Measure of Man: The Frontiers of Normal Adjustment.

London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1957 (distributed by Humanities Press, New York). Pp. viii + 250. \$5.50.

Reviewed by WILLIAM W. BIDDLE

Dr. Biddle is Professor of Social Psychology and Director of the Program of Community Dynamics in Earlham College, a program of "action-research" aimed at "the improvement of communities by self-directed human development." He has been running this "real-life social laboratory" for ten years, training graduates and undergraduates for leadership and acting as consultant in the field of community development. He is the author of *The Cultivation of Community Leaders* (Harpers, 1953) and, with Loureide J. Biddle, of *Growth Toward Freedom* (Harpers, 1957).

SOME social psychologists (this reviewer too) have a weakness for choosing book titles that promise too much. Paul Halmos has succumbed to this temptation. His book *Towards a Measure of Man* is concerned less with taking a measure of genus homo as a species than with taking the measure of sociology as a discipline.

His admiration is complete: "The only scientific discipline which deals with the total field of human relations and human conduct is sociology." His criticism is vigorous: sociology requires synthesis, without which it remains "a melée of disparate pieces of information and not a coherent scientific disci-

pline." "The science of sociology is the child of disillusionment and the father of a promise. Sociologists 'invited us to look forward to an objective and total comprehension of social living—but the promise is yet to be fulfilled.'"

But the "only hard currency in sociological budgeting" is "psychological and even biological knowledge." This knowledge rests upon the two comprehensive principles of growth versus cohesion. These opposed principles are found first in biological evolution but continue to operate in man's social reactions where they must be kept in "serviceable disbalance [where] there is an alternation of supremacy, and even a fluctuation, between growth and cohesion. Some may say that this is balance; but balance is static and final whilst life is neither."

The reviewer would refer to this "disbalance" as a dynamic balance that constantly readjusts to meet changing circumstances, but such differences of terminology are largely semantic.

"Growth and cohesion are the unchanging functions of life." In human social experience they take the form of individuation-versus-socialization to bring about a *Necessary and Meritorious Disbalance* (Chapter 3). But all disbalances are not good. Some are nor-

mal, some abnormal. Halmos expends a great many pages wrestling with the concepts of normality and abnormality. He concludes that, although the norm cannot be satisfactorily defined, an approach to solution can be found in a definition of the "abnorm." thereby delimiting the area available to the norm.

His definition of the *abnorm* (if we eliminate some over-wordy qualifications) is:

Abnormal primary adjustment condition (neurosis) obtains when the individual suffers social-sexual frustrations in any of a number of specified experiences listed in an inventory universally agreed upon, provided these experiences are followed by any of a number of specified manifestations listed in a similarly accepted inventory.

Unfortunately Halmos does not become specific about either universally accepted inventory, although he insists that "psychoanalytically oriented clinical practice, biographies, sociological work, literary characterization, and so on, in fact, accept" such criteria. The reviewer is much less optimistic about finding any universality of concurrence, especially since Halmos rejects cultural relativism. The general acceptance of any inventory list will be further cast in doubt when psychologists other than those with psychoanalytic orientation are consulted.

The author is to be complimented for his courage in facing basic issues, for his philosophic grasp and willingness to examine the metaphysical implications of much psychological thinking. He does not dodge the ethical responsibilities of the social sciences, particularly in examining the art of insight-giving in therapeutic situations. "Don't tell the truth," he writes, "but help others to discover it for themselves." A self-understanding of "serviceable disbalance" between norm and "abnorm" represents the insight upon which rational self-control must rest.

Halmos is Lecturer in Psychology and Education at University College of North Staffordshire. His psychological orientation is clinical, but broadly eclectic. He feels free to criticize Freud, yet to accept some of his basic concepts. He deals discriminatingly with

such contemporaries as Horner, Fromm, and Riesmann. He ranges widely, as he should, over general scientific, biological, and philosophical writing to find some of the synthesis he advocates. His conclusions have application and implication, far beyond the clinical field, to educational practice in schools and to

the mass communication and persuasion that engages the attention of many psychologists.

Thus he makes an excellent beginning at a synthesis which is philosophically informed. He should be encouraged to carry his thinking further in subsequent volumes.

Selecting Management: Assorted Facts and Opinions

M. Joseph Dooher and Elizabeth Marting (Eds.)

Selection of Management Personnel. 2 Vols. New York: American Management Association, 1957. Pp. 542; 364.

Reviewed by JOHN K. HEMPHILL

Dr. Hemphill is a research associate in the Educational Testing Service at Princeton, New Jersey. He began life as an industrial psychologist, trained under John G. Jenkins and Fillmore Sanford at the University of Maryland. He was for seven years a member of the Personnel Research Board group at Ohio State University, directing research on leadership and group behavior. Now at ETS he is working on the "Executive Study," an investigation of executive selection and performance in a wide variety of industries.

By publishing a handbook on the selection of management personnel at this time, the American Management Association has accomplished two things. First, it has assembled an assortment of articles, most (but not all) of which the Association had published separately over the last twelve years. Second, in so doing, it has called attention to what appears to be the inadequate knowledge about scientific selection of managers.

Lest my critical attitude be misunderstood, let me point out that the editors of these two volumes regard the selection of managers to be both an art and a science. Undoubtedly this duality has something to do with making the book appear a hodgepodge of relatively un-

tested recipes. I find it difficult to regard the artistic elements in a selection procedure as other than a challenge for further work. Thus, I find little of interest in Part 4 (Volume II) of the work, a part which is devoted to nineteen short descriptions of the manner in which the art of management selection is pursued within nineteen American companies.

In fairness, it must also be recognized that the volumes were not prepared primarily for industrial psychologists. Business executives, especially those who are personnel managers, may find the contents even of Volume II to be of value. They may be able to compare their practices with those of other companies or perhaps may wish to imitate or adapt certain of the others' procedures for their own use.

A psychologist could be interested in the contents of Parts 1, 2, and 3 (Volume I), but he needs to pick and choose. A small number of these contributions are well worth serious attention, but there are many others that report the results of poor research or are entirely expressions of opinion. My choices of the best among the assortment of articles include a short note by Matthew Radom in Part 1; Part 2, which is concerned with executive selection and is written by Milton Mandell;

and an article on the use of projective techniques by Erwin Taylor and Edwin Nevis in Part 3.

Radom's note concerns the development and use of a performance-rating technique. His report on a project carried out in the Standard Oil Company (New Jersey) illustrates how good research can be done on management selection and also how a technical research report can be well presented for a general audience.

Mandell's chapters on the selection executives are only a part of his contribution to the book. One should read his chapters not so much with the hope of finding final solutions to the problems of executive selection but for his careful analysis of the problem and his evaluation of present accomplishments.

Taylor and Nevis do a man-sized job in presenting the case for projective tests in the selection of managers. Although the general tone of their contribution is definitely favorable to projective testing, they display a control and restraint that is uncommon in discussing the controversial projective tests.

Now that I have pointed to what I consider to be the high points of the book, let us look at the remainder. Most of the chapters were prepared for and published as articles in *Personnel*. Articles published in any one professional journal cannot provide a basis for a realistic view of the state of our knowledge about as complex a problem as management selection. If the editors are serious in the intent of bringing the "record up to date," it would appear that in their judgment the psychological journals have contained nothing that has contributed to the science of management selection and that the *Harvard Business Review*, for example, has no contribution to make to the art.

I find further a serious lack of basic integration despite the fact that an occasional foreword to a specific article is provided. For example, all manner of opinion is expressed in the various articles regarding the value of psychological tests in the process of management selection. Some authors see little or no value in psychological tests, others regard them highly. The reader is left

with the job of sifting whatever evidence he can find and drawing his own conclusion.

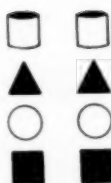
Another issue that appears to me to be treated inconsistently is whether a company that considers instituting a procedure for management selection must tailor it to fit the particular character of its organization or can assume some generality of problems and their solution, thus profiting from the experience of other companies. Frequently the reader is cautioned that tests or other procedures that have been validated within one company may work in reverse if used in a different setting. On the other hand, the volumes proffer about 150 pages of rating forms, job description blanks, interview schedules and the like, each in detail sufficient to tempt the unwary. This is in addition to all too frequent recommendation of this or that procedure by one author or another. Can these forms and procedures be depended upon if used in a new setting? The implied answer is both yes and no.

So, I wonder what purpose will be served by the publication of these two volumes. If the articles assembled for the book had been selected to represent fairly our present state of knowledge about the selection of management, then the work might serve as a benchmark from which we could measure future progress. Some personnel managers may, indeed, find something of value in the solution of their operational problems if they are willing to follow the practices of others in the face of repeated warning of dangers involved and if they are fortunate in avoiding being misled. Certainly there is a need to bring together the results of the various efforts that are being made toward improving the selection of managers, a need which this book unfortunately does not meet.



Every intellectual product must be judged from the point of view of the age and the people in which it is produced.

—WALTER PATER



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Psychoanalysis: Lion or Lamb?

Joseph Anthony

The Invisible Curtain: Psychoanalytic Cases of Louis Montgomery.
New York: Rinehart, 1957. Pp. 250. \$3.50.

Ira Progoff

The Death and Rebirth of Psychology: An Integrative Evaluation of Freud, Adler, Jung and Rank and the Impact of Their Culminating Insights on Modern Man. New York: Julian Press, 1956. Pp. ix + 275. \$4.00.

Reviewed by O. HOBART MOWRER

Dr. Mowrer is, of course, Research Professor of Psychology at the University of Illinois, and the author of *Learning Theory and Personality Dynamics and of Psychotherapy: Theory and Research. Being concerned with learning makes you interested in personality which takes you almost inevitably into psychotherapy so that the concepts of psychoanalysis become the pawns of your expertise. You use them even when you sacrifice them, as he says here. Readers will recall his review of Benjamin Whorf's thought and of Wendell Johnson's book* (CP, Mar. 1957, 2, 57-59).

IN his book, *Freud, Master and Friend*, Hanns Sachs, in speaking of Freud's knack for thumbnail characterizations of people, tells the following incident. A former politician and man of affairs once visited Freud and, when he had left, Freud took his measure with the comment: "Aged lion, well on way to becoming a couch cover!" The two books here under review suggest that Freud was on this occasion speaking prophetically, though unknowingly, of the psychoanalytic movement. In these books, as in many other contemporary documents, we see unmistakable evidence that psychoanalysis is either disintegrating or else changing into something very different from what it originally fancied itself to be.

The Invisible Curtain is at once engaging and puzzling. It is engaging, first of all, because it is well written and effectively organized. It is "by" Joseph Anthony, a professional journalist and publicist, who is literate, informed, and manifestly friendly to his subject matter. Each chapter (i.e., case history) is introduced in a skillful and interest-provoking way; and the chapter titles and jacket descriptions are catchy without being cheap: "Blueprint for Failure—The young architect who achieved a spectacular success, then spent ten years courting frustration and obscurity"; "The Halo and the Wedding Ring—The self-sacrificing young woman who lost her martyr's crown, but also her ulcers, on the analytic couch"; "The Making of a Milktoast—The mouselike clerk and the girl who built a better mousetrap"; "Angry Cinderella—The girl who joined the oldest profession for the newest reason"; and so on. Each of the accounts unfolds with all the suspense and culminates with the climax of a good detective story.

The Invisible Curtain is puzzling because it purports to give verbatim accounts of eight psychoanalytic cases; yet the cases were apparently not taped or otherwise mechanically recorded. It is puzzling because all eight of these clinical stories have a dramatic and happy ending, implying 100% success for psychoanalysis which, alas, is by

no means its true achievement quotient. And the book is also puzzling because the method used by Dr. Montgomery ("Ph.D. in psychology at the University of Vienna . . . an analysand of Sigmund Freud and Fritz Wittels") is represented as orthodoxly Freudian, whereas it actually involves some striking deviations.

Yet *The Invisible Curtain* (a title deriving from the concept of repression) is also deeply instructive—perhaps all the more so because of its paradoxes. Of the many indications exhibited in this book of the change that is occurring in psychoanalysis, perhaps the most remarkable is this. Repeatedly, repressed hostility is found to be the basis of psychosomatic disorders, blocked sexuality, and personal ineffectiveness; but matters are not allowed to rest there. Continued analysis manages, in the end, to show that the hostility was not entirely justified and impales the patient upon the sharp reality of his own culpability and immaturity. Here are two examples.

Self-punishment always seems illogical, but it has a distorted logic of its own; it is sensed as a way of paying for one's forbidden tendencies, and thereby averting infinitely more awful penalties. . . . In other words, masochism is developed as a form of anti-social security.

Mavis, who blithely proclaimed her contempt for her father, was inwardly so guilt-ridden for her inability to love him that branding herself as a murderess was preferable to facing the intolerable truth that she had violated the primary law of the nursery. But it was a long time before she acquired her first glimmer of insight into this; all her keen intelligence was alerted for the protection of her infantile secret.

One has to read these two paragraphs carefully to see that the author is *not* talking, as might be expected, about an Oedipus (or Electra) Complex; he is talking rather about a little girl who came to hate her father, more and more, because of her own defiance and rebellion and who found normality and peace only in painful acknowledgment of the inherent wrongness of her attitudes and interpersonal strategies. Her "infantile secret" was not an unholy

lust but the fact that she did not and would not "honor" her father.

Or, consider the case of "Angry Cinderella":

A new picture of Fay's father emerged now. It was that of a hard-working, confused man who occasionally drank more than he could hold, and spent the next few months trying to atone for it.

Fay began now to speak of "Mother" and "Dad" instead of "the old man" and "the old lady." Also, she developed a tendency to judge herself as harshly as she had previously judged her parents. One day she said bitterly, "Sometimes I think I was better off with the baby brand of guilt than the way I am now. Now I really have something to be guilty about!"

But the worst of Fay's troubles—her weighted-down, what's-the-use feeling—was still with her. "And I don't need you to tell me why!" she said to the analyst. "It's because I realize what I am. I never used to think of myself as a prostitute—I was fighting a crusade against Clark for giving me a raw deal. Now I know I gave him a raw deal, and I was just a no-good whore. Who wouldn't be depressed? That's quite a comedown from being a hero."

Is psychoanalysis in the process of rediscovering the age-old prescription for 'salvation': acknowledgment of wrongdoing, repentance, and penance? And, if so, is this why Dr. Montgomery's patients show a more favorable recovery rate than classical psychoanalysis could claim?

THE reviewer had read Proffoff's book—*The Death and Rebirth of Psychology*—some months before *The Invisible Curtain* came to his attention; but upon reading Anthony, he was forcibly reminded of Proffoff. As implied by its title, Proffoff's book takes the position that psychoanalysis, before it could find itself, had to lose itself in the sense of becoming something very different from what it was in the beginning. The author shows how Freud's three great apostles, Adler, Jung, and Rank, in succession, all went through personal crises which resulted in their leaving the Freudian fold and taking off in another direction. All of these dissenters, Proffoff holds, in abandoning Freud moved toward a greater emphasis upon the

social, moral, and spiritual elements in human nature; and, near the end of his life, Freud himself became disillusioned with his own system of thought and practice and would have revised it had it lain within his power to do so.

The essence of the Proffoff book is contained in its three concluding paragraphs which, because of their special relevance here, may be quoted in full:

The foundation of the new kind of psychology is its conception of man as an organism of psychological depth and of spiritual magnitude. Its underlying aim is to carry out its psychological work on the unconscious levels of the personality in such a way as to open the dormant potentialities of the spirit and permit them to emerge and unfold. This means something considerably more basic than the analytical development of those capacities that the individual requires in order to adapt successfully in the modern competitive world. It involves much more, a penetration by psychological experience deep into the core of one's being, deep into the spiritual seed of life itself. The ultimate task of the new psychology is to re-establish man's connection to life, not superficially in terms of slogans or therapeutic stratagems, but fundamentally and actually as an evident fact of modern existence. Its task is to bring the modern person into touch with the sustaining and creative forces of life beyond all intellectual doctrines that may be preached or professed, to make these forces available to man, and to make man psychologically available to them in terms of experiences that he can learn to verify by himself, within himself. In this way, depth psychology will finally fulfill the purpose for which history called it into existence in western civilization. It will then make its destined contribution to the search for a faith beyond dogma in which the man of science is presently engaged; for of all the programs offered in our time, the new depth psychology holds the greatest promise of leading the modern man along the road of science to an experience of the meaning and the spiritual authenticity of his inner life.

Since the time when the Freudian psychology first came into vogue, many sensitive persons have felt that there must be a close kinship between the psychology of the depths of man and the problems of religion, the arts, and the creative personality in everyday life. Consequently, there have been innumerable attempts to relate depth psychology to religion and art; but

for the most part these have been uneasy failures, suggesting that, despite their very good intentions, they were artificially contrived. The kind of psychology they chose to apply did not deal sympathetically with their material. Working with the analytical type of psychology, they labored under a severe handicap, for its reductive point of view was inherently out of tune with the requirements of spontaneous experience that is the core of the creative life.

Now, however, we have come beyond the analytical period in psychology. At length it is becoming possible for us to proceed with a new view of man, a new structure of thought, and new goals for our psychological work, all in harmony with the deep needs and nature of the human being. We are now much better equipped to attend to the disturbances of spirit in the modern person who has been caught in the transitions of history. While the old analytical psychology verges on death, a new psychology is coming to birth in its very midst, transmuting the old insights and using psychological tools to rebuild the modern spirit. The new psychology brings a conception of personality that nourishes and strengthens man's creative will. Finally it frees us from the chronic pessimism of the age of anxiety out of which we are now emerging. Ours is an age in which science, transforming itself in many areas from physics to psychology, is opening new spiritual vistas and extending the range of modern experience. Emergent depth psychology has a major role to play in the making of the new era, for it brings a great challenge and a great hope to modern man.

More than a quarter of a century ago Anton T. Boisen indicated the religion of that day as "treatment without diagnosis," a gospel for the undifferentiated masses without individual inquiry and understanding. Has psychoanalysis given us, by contrast, "diagnosis without treatment"? Freud himself, in later years, came to the conclusion that he had overestimated its therapeutic value and that its principal use was as an instrument of research. Under the aegis of the pastoral counseling movement, religion has individualized its treatment. Can it be that psychoanalysis has, at long last, discovered therapy? Perhaps the lion and the lamb shall, after all, lie down together!

Psychotherapy on the American Plan

E. Lakin Phillips

Psychotherapy: A Modern Theory and Practice. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1956. Pp. xviii + 334. \$5.00.

Reviewed by MERVIN B. FREEDMAN

Dr. Freedman is a Research Associate in the Mary Conover Mellon Foundation at Vassar College, where he works in association with Nevitt Sanford. He took his doctorate at the University of California in Berkeley and stayed on there for three years to work on the interpersonal dimensions of personality and on psychosomatic medicine. For the last four years he has been with the Mellon Foundation, concerned with the development of personality during the college years. He is just now especially interested in relating the techniques and practices of psychotherapy to social and philosophical influences.

A BOOK with two distinct but closely intertwined features. It is, on the one hand, a sober, scientific treatise—an account of a systematic application of some of the concepts of learning theory and perceptual research to clinical phenomena; and it is, on the other hand, a polemic, a tract, hortatory in tone, often philosophically rather than empirically or positivistically oriented.

Let us consider the sober, scientific side first. The author presents an account of psychopathological behavior and symptomatology which he calls the "interference theory." Its general conceptualization entails no surprises. Tension or anxiety is a result of conflict. Conflict results from the "disconfirmation of hypotheses or assertions." Psychotherapy is viewed as an attempt to restructure cognitive or perceptual fields so that patients may forego "erroneous" hypotheses and adopt more suitable ones, i.e., ones less likely to lead to "disconfirmation," conflict, and tension.

Thus far it would seem that we are on the familiar ground of learning theory. The author displays a wide range of knowledge of the literature and research in this field. If he states that there is no need for the concept of the unconscious in describing or explaining behavior, we are not surprised. Other theorists have made this assertion and have proceeded either to translate the concept of the unconscious into operational terms or to ignore it altogether.

What is surprising is not the author's schema for conceptualizing human behavior but the way in which he applies his schema to the practice of psychotherapy. He suggests that the hazy area of psychotherapy should be clarified by conceiving of its operations in the same terms that one uses in viewing conflict and psychopathological behavior. The result is a procedure of psychotherapy in which the author kicks over all the traces. Not only does he disclaim the need for the concept of the unconscious, but he also considers it unprofitable to concern himself with the genetic etiology of emotional disturbance and with the phenomena of resistance, transference, and counter-transference.

PSYCHOTHERAPY, in the author's view, is primarily a cognitive rather than an affective procedure. He holds that the role of the therapist is avowedly an active and didactic one. The therapist "interferes with the patient's assumption system." He learns from patients what are their central expectations and how these are being "disconfirmed," and he assists them in developing new and bet-

ter assertions. The book contains numerous accounts of brief psychotherapeutic transactions which illustrate how this process is carried out; and three lengthy protocols of therapeutic sessions are presented at the end. The author believes that his psychotherapeutic techniques are extremely effective. In comparison with various forms of depth psychotherapy, they result in fewer cases of premature withdrawal from therapy and greater success in eliminating or reducing pathological symptoms. As support for these claims, the author presents preliminary results of a research project that compares interference with depth-oriented psychotherapy.

What we have then, essentially, in the practice of psychotherapy according to interference theory, is the imposition upon a very complex social situation, i.e., the relationship between patient and psychotherapist, of concepts which were designed to systematize the behavior of organisms, animal and human, in experimental situations, situations in which the data to be observed are defined and limited in advance. Of course, one may limit a problem area to accord with prior conceptualization provided he recognizes that certain features of the situation have been excluded by fiat, but this the author fails to do. As is well known, the relationship between theories of personality and theories of psychotherapy is confused and tenuous. Thus psychoanalysis as a therapeutic technique may be distinguished sharply from psychoanalytic theories of the development of personality. The two do not stand or fall together. The author, therefore, is obliged to justify his theory of psychotherapy in and of itself, for the concordance of its concepts with those of behavior theory and the operational neatness of its formulations provide no assurance of the value of interference theory.

Now how can the author justify himself in opposing or ignoring almost the entire weight of current thinking about psychotherapy? Granting the lack of information obtained by rigorous experimental procedure, there is still a body of common beliefs to which most theoreticians in the field of psychotherapy adhere. In some form or other these beliefs encompass concepts of resistance,

of transference, of unconscious motive, of a need for affective 'working through' as well as for cognitive insight. There are two answers to the above question as the reviewer sees it, one implicit, the other explicit. The implicit answer is justified because they are as far from depth-oriented procedures as one can get. The explicit answer is that interference-theory therapy is justified because it works.

To deal with the implicit answer first. The author inveighs against depth psychology at every opportunity. Depth-oriented therapists "bleed patients, psychologically speaking." "Early constructive signs of the patient's feeling better and experiencing relief are judged merely as signs of resistance against the agonies to come. . . . The patient is beaten into the mold of the therapist and is not permitted to gain in resourcefulness faster than the therapist is prepared to accept it in the client" (p. 197). Although many of the author's negative views of psychoanalysis are perhaps justified, it must be said that his knowledge of psychoanalytic literature and practice appears hardly adequate. Much of his criticism is based on misinterpretation or simple lack of information.

At the heart of his dissatisfaction with psychoanalysis appears to be an essential disagreement as to the nature of man. The author deplores the notion of "the deep devilishness of the mind that is posited in characteristic Freudian depth views" and states that "the view advanced here is that human motivation is at bottom always good." Paul Meehl, who has contributed the foreword, remarks too "on the pervasively negative perception of the patient held by depth therapists." The issue, in this reviewer's opinion, is not so much a question of good or bad, positive or negative, as of the degree of irrationality one is disposed to attribute to man. It would seem unfair to charge that Freud held a negative view of man. It is more just to state that his was essentially a tragic view based on awareness of man's enormous irrational potential.

It is the author's view of man (in the reviewer's opinion) which enables him



E. LAKIN PHILLIPS

to claim that his brand of therapy works, for, despite the theoretical disagreements outlined above, the reviewer is inclined to agree that interference-theory therapy does indeed work in much the fashion that the author describes, if not for the reasons he gives. The reviewer does not question the power of men of good will, who possess an uncomplicated view of human nature and the courage of their convictions, to relieve patients of pathological symptoms and strengthen general adjustive or integrative faculties by means of encouragement, support, and advice. This process may not be psychotherapy as most of our authorities conceive of it, but it is what many if not most patients who come to psychotherapists want and expect—and increasingly it seems to be what they are getting.

Despite the truism that psychoanalysis is now the dominant body of opinion in psychiatry, clinical psychology, and other psychotherapeutic circles, it is the reviewer's belief that in actual practice, in actual operation, most psychotherapy resembles interference theory more than it does psychoanalysis. As interest in psychotherapy increasingly pervades American life, more and more people, who lack the time, money, and at least initially the introspective tendency required in psychoanalysis, enter into psychotherapeutic relationships. It is difficult to respond to these people with the traditional psychoanalyst's sense of variousness, of complexity, perhaps too of pessimism, or to display his 'enlightened passivity' in the face of resistance,

particularly if the therapist himself does not share these attitudes or does so only partially. In these circumstances it seems easier to function as an interference-theory therapist than as a psychoanalytically-oriented one.

This book, then, deserves to be read as a statement of a philosophy of psychotherapy which has a large following in practice but which has lacked a public program and leadership. The case for interference-theory therapy may be overstated, caricatured possibly, but the point of view should not be ignored. If this book serves to direct attention to the considerable gap which exists between the formal body of literature on the theory of psychotherapy and much actual practice, it will serve a very useful purpose.

Baedekers for Birds and Bees

J. D. Carthy

Animal Navigation. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1956. Pp. 151. \$3.95.

Reviewed by HELMUT E. ADLER

who is Associate Professor of Psychology at Yeshiva University, research fellow in the Department of Animal Behavior at the Museum of Natural History in New York, and lecturer on the evolution of behavior at Columbia. He is a comparative psychologist who really believes in comparing animals. That's not too common. Also he likes animals. Just now he is working on the sensory means of navigation by birds, believing that, when we know enough about the sensory capacities of a species, we can determine the navigational cues.

RECENT years have been full of exciting discoveries and imaginative hypotheses on how animals find their way about. Dr. John Dennis Carthy, lecturer of zoology at the University of London and Secretary of the British

Association for the Study of Animal Behaviour has written a clear and concise summary of the present status of the problem.

Ranging from the lower invertebrates to the mammals, the author follows a roughly phylogenetic outline, but the reader is struck by the repetition of the mechanisms employed in navigation at the various evolutionary levels. Locusts and sticklebacks make use of fixed reference points in their environment to judge the direction of their own movement in currents of wind or water; wasps and dogs are guided by landmarks, but bees as well as birds respond to the cues provided by the sun. It seems that there exists only a limited set of possibilities of which advantage is repeatedly taken in the course of evolution when animals have to find their way about.

This book is organized into ten chapters, of which the first is a short introduction to the fascinating yet puzzling ways in which animals orient themselves. It seems to the reviewer, however, that the discussion suffers from the difficulty inherent in making any comparisons of animal and human ways, for it must steer a perilous course near anthropomorphism while it stresses the alien nature of the animal's world. Thus, though we have but "a poor idea of the splendour of this olfactory universe," yet we must necessarily generalize from our own experience to the animals' perception of smells.

Eight chapters take up the story of particular travelers. In each Carthy has brought together facts and theories, mostly found scattered over a wide range of biological literature and often not in English, and now made available here to the reader for the first time. This potpourri is presented with but few links between the chapters and but little evaluation. The reader, using this rather nontechnical exposition, has to decide what to accept and what to reject.

STARTING with a discussion of trailing, Carthy focuses on the topochemical sense of some ants, their ability not only to recognize and follow trails, but to 'smell' the direction in which a par-

ticular trail is laid down. This chapter is followed by a consideration of the feats of solitary wasps. These hunters show remarkable perceptual constancy in transposing an aerial picture, memorized in a single flight, to objects on the ground.

Locusts and butterflies are at the mercy of the elements in their travels, we learn, but the real navigators are the birds and the bees. The principal facts on sun navigation and the use of the polarized sky by bees are outlined by Carthy, following mainly the work of von Frisch.

Two chapters are devoted to the navigation of birds. Dr. Carthy reviews the experimental approaches to this problem, basing his comment mainly on the transposition experiments of Schütz, Matthews, Rüppel, and Wojtusiak. He suggests an inherited sense of direction to account for directional migration and homing, yet shows that English Mallards reared in Finland returned to the place where they were hatched, not to England where the eggs were laid.

After rejecting theories requiring improbable sensory capacities, such as those based on Coriolis force or the earth's magnetic field, Carthy summarizes the sun navigation hypotheses of Kramer and Matthews.

Kramer's hypothesis states that birds keep the sun at a constant angle to their flight direction, adjusting this angle continually to compensate for the sun's apparent movement. This ability can, of course, account only for directional migration, not for homing. Matthews suggests that the second coordinate necessary for a complete sys-


tem of navigation is provided by comparison of the height of the sun's arc with that at the home territory. Without citing all the experimental evidence, such as Hoffman's work on shifting the time reference, Carthy does a good job in elucidating these difficult topics. To Sauer's most recent work on the apparently parallel use of star patterns in night migration he refers only briefly.

Carthy does not mention the recent extension of this type of thinking to the migration of fishes (Hasler), but rightly questions theories accounting for fish migrations in terms of currents and gradients of salinity and temperature alone.

His chapter on mammals ranges from mice to whales, and is probably the weakest in the book. On the other hand, the evidence for mammals is very fragmentary and anecdotal.

A brief chapter on sensory capacities concludes the book. Even though it is tacked onto the book like an afterthought, it suggests one avenue of research open to psychologists which perhaps will one day allow us to decide between conflicting theories and supply a solid foundation for the wealth of observations which Carthy has cited.

It is regrettable that not even a few selected references are included. Compared with the recent book by Matthews (*Bird Navigation*, Cambridge University Press, 1955), Carthy's *Animal Navigation* has no new contributions to make. It is not a book for the scholar, but a popularized account of a difficult subject. Perhaps the reviewer expected too much, for the book is packed with facts, well illustrated, and very readable.


I do not know what I may appear to the world, but to myself I seem to have been only like a boy playing on the seashore, and diverting myself in now and then finding a prettier shell, or a smoother pebble than ordinary, whilst the great ocean of truth lay all undiscovered before me.

—ISAAC NEWTON



INTRODUCTION TO METHODS IN EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

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Stress, Emotion, and the Ego

Daniel H. Funkenstein, Stanley H. King, and Margaret E. Drolette

Mastery of Stress. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1957. Pp. xv + 329. \$6.00.

Reviewed by RICHARD S. LAZARUS

Dr. Lazarus is a clinical psychologist, until recently Director of the Clinical Training Program at Clark University, but now Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of California in Berkeley. He is co-author of one book and several papers on the dynamics of personality, with a special interest in the relation of personality to stress, defense, emotion, and cognition. At present he is working for the National Institute of Mental Health on a long-term experimental study of personality and stress.

HERE we have a book on stress that follows in the tradition of research monographs by Grinker and Spiegel, the Assessment Staff of the Office of Strategic Services, and of Basowitz *et al.* The content is basically a presentation of the psychophysiological research findings of an interdisciplinary team consisting of a psychiatrist, a psychologist, and a statistician.

The reader who has been impatient with the pedestrian and unsystematic quality of much of the research on psychological stress now finds himself in a dilemma. On the one hand, the problems that these authors have attacked are important and exciting. They are cast in dynamic concepts representing an admixture of Freudian and Sullivanian modes of thought, and they are linked to the most recent work of physiologists who have contributed to psychosomatic medicine. On the other hand, there are serious flaws in the method and the argument.

For one thing, a great deal of the reasoning is *ex post facto*, and the significant relationships with personality variables have apparently been culled

from a large body of data, much of which is not presented. The net effect is that, if one takes the work as exploratory rather than deductive, there is a great deal in the book with which to be impressed. On the other hand, if one is seeking a set of principles and concepts which have demonstrated generality, then the methodological shortcomings and the need for replication of most of the findings stand out acutely.

The authors are on firmest ground when they show that the type of emotion reported by the subject after the first stress situation is related to secretions of the adrenal medulla. 'Anger-out' goes with a nor-epinephrine-like secretion pattern, while 'anger-in' and 'anxiety' go with an epinephrine-like pattern. The evidence is indirect, being based upon physiological indexes such as blood pressure, pulse, and ballistocardiograph tracings, but comparable patterns have been previously shown to be associated with the actual secretion of nor-epinephrine and epinephrine.

Less clear and well documented is the distinction between the "acute emergency reaction" and "mastery" of stress. This distinction the authors maintain throughout the book, and it is basic to the interpretation of most of the relationships with personality variables. The acute emergency reaction occurs with the subject's first contact with stress and is identified as a basic or innate disposition. Mastery of stress, on the other hand, is considered to be an acquired ego-function, and is defined in terms of the success of the subject in eliminating the emotional disturbance on subsequent occasions of experimental stress. The authors link mastery of stress to the proneness of individuals to

develop psychopathological disturbances in response to chronic life stress, suggesting that the type of disorder (e.g., paranoia, depression) is related to the basic disposition, such as anger-out, anger-in, or anxiety.

The notion that the subject's reactions to the first stress situation are essentially spontaneous, basic, and innate, while his reactions to later stresses in the experiment reflect acquired ego-strength, is hard to support. How can the initial reaction be free of so-called ego-functions and the previous reactions to the experimenters, and, conversely, how can the mastery be independent of basic dispositions? The very fact that some subjects can react with "no emotion," or with anger-in or anxiety states, which are, according to other concepts of the authors, reactions in which primitive tendencies have been altered by ego-processes, this very fact argues against such a notion. The logical difficulty becomes even more apparent when the basic disposition is considered to be part of the "deeper aspects of the personality" and should therefore be related only to such personality variables as perception of parental roles and the self-concept, while the ability to handle stress as time passes is an ego-process that should be related only to the assessment of reality and the integration of personality. The authors sup-



DANIEL H. FUNKENSTEIN

port this distinction, with a pattern of correlations.

THERE are some strange inconsistencies in the book, one of which is the provision of detailed and repetitious reports of procedures in some spheres, with only the skimpiest information about method and data in others. For instance, it is noted with respect to the reliability of scoring of the thematic apperception test material that "there was significant agreement between the two [scorers]," yet the actual degree of correspondence is not given in any form.

A more serious example is seen in the handling of the frustration-aggression hypothesis. Many men reacted with anxiety instead of aggression as a consequence of the stress. The authors maintain, however, that aggression is a necessary consequence of frustration because "interviews with the men showed that, in the majority of cases, this anxiety arose over conflicts about their hostile impulses." Such a statement is quite cavalier in view of the fact that none of this interview material or of the methods for obtaining and handling it are presented. There are several instances where conclusions of this type are made without the reader's being able to examine for himself the materials from which they are drawn.

One of the most serious difficulties with the research design under consideration is the confounding of a number of different factors, such as type of stress, type of task, and sequence effects. The original plans apparently called for a counterbalancing such that type of stress would not be confounded with order of presentation, but only two of the planned three experimental groups were actually used and it is difficult to disentangle these variables in the analysis. The authors also do not consider the possibility that individual differences in the mastery of stress are based upon variations in the subjects' sensitivity to the different kinds of stresses. The subjects are treated as being identical in motivation, and variation in reaction from one time to another is assumed to be based solely upon their ability to master stress.

There is a great deal to recommend this book. It presents interesting problems and original ideas. Unfortunately the positive values of the work are marred by its methodological weaknesses. Perhaps there is some prematurity in publishing in book form a project which could profit so much from cross-validation. Nevertheless the work will undoubtedly have an important place in the research literature, and it could help to pave the way toward a new and more imaginative approach to the problems of stress.



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If Stress Changes Belief, What About Pavlov?

William Sargant

Battle for the Mind: How Evangelists, Psychiatrists, Politicians and Medicine Men Can Change Your Beliefs and Behavior. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, 1957. Pp. 263. \$4.50.

Reviewed by EDGAR H. SCHEIN

Dr. Schein is Assistant Professor of Industrial Management at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. He interviewed repatriated American prisoners of war in Korea and is, in general, CP's brainwasher. He has already reviewed Meerloo's The Rape of the Mind (CP, May 1957, 2, 140f.), and he makes a brief comment on Packard's The Hidden Persuaders (CP, December 1957, 2, 308f.).

SUCH dramatic changes of belief as religious conversions can no longer be left in the provinces of psychology and metaphysics now that the Western world finds itself in an ideological struggle. Instead, Dr. William Sargant, a prominent British psychiatrist, tells us that we must look to the *physiology* of brain function in order to understand what the methods of the medicine man, the priest, the psychotherapist, and the brainwasher have in common.

The essential clue, he says, is to be found in Pavlov's discoveries of "transmarginal inhibition" in the experimental neuroses of dogs. Even in the temperamentally most stable dogs, the application of the right kinds of stresses produce inhibition and disruption of conditioned reflexes. Pavlov identified three phases of inhibition as the dog was subjected to increasing levels of stress: (1) the "equivalent" phase in which he reacts equally to stimuli of various intensity; (2) the "paradoxical" phase in which he reacts more strongly to weak stimuli than to strong stimuli; and (3) the "ultraparadoxical" in which he reacts in an *opposite* way from the

usual one—approaching previously disliked objects or people and avoiding previously liked objects or people. Of particular interest to the author are these disruptions which reverse the conditioning.

Sargant feels that the analogy to human behavior under stress is too obvious to pass up. He proceeds, therefore, to display evidence from war neuroses, drug therapy, psychoanalysis, shock therapy, leucotomy, religious conversion, initiation rites, and political indoctrination to support the following contentions: (1) that man too can be classified into a number of temperamental types which make him more or less susceptible to physical and emotional stress; (2) that high levels of stress will bring about an emotional collapse comparable to Pavlovian inhibition; (3) that such stress can be produced by direct intervention in brain activity through drugs, shock, or surgery, or can be the result of chronic powerful emotional stimulation or physical debilitation; (4) that, once a state of inhibition has been achieved, the person is highly suggestible and prone to sharp reorganizations of his beliefs; (5) that the content of these beliefs or of the psychological situation is relatively unimportant compared to the emotional process and the brain inhibition; and (6) that, in fact, *only* by a cycle of stress, collapse, inhibition, and reorganization can such beliefs be drastically changed.

The evidence, cited from an astonishing variety of sources, supports the argument that known cases of sharp

change of belief or conversion are usually accompanied by drastic emotional responses that approximate complete, though temporary, collapse. As to this reversal's being a Pavlovian inhibition, however, one must say that the identification remains very much in the realm of hypothesis. Sargant gives no criteria other than the collapse which would permit one to identify or measure such inhibition, and, in fact, one wonders whether the invoking of this mechanism adds anything more to the discussion than the prestige of Pavlov's name and experiments.

This thought need not belittle the interesting contention that an essential condition of change in belief is emotional collapse. It could, however, be argued that such collapse is a symptom or accompanying condition of temporary personality disorganization produced by very intense or traumatic experiences, thus putting the discussion back at a psychological level of analysis, where one can meaningfully analyze the type of events that lead to collapse and conversion, instead of stating merely that the subject must be made to collapse by some means or another, as Sargant implies. Sargant's own accounts of primitive tribal rites, religious conversion, and political indoctrination show that the 'brainwasher' carefully gears his method of producing collapse to the personality of the subject, the social context, and the nature of the new belief to be implanted.

THE author does indeed consider individual differences in susceptibility, but here too he relies solely on analogy, stating that human beings vary in temperament somewhat like the Pavlovian dogs and that they withstand stress according to their temperaments. He gives no criteria, however, for identifying temperamental types and provides only anecdotal evidence that different types are differentially susceptible.

The hypothesis that emotional collapse is essential for change of belief leads to the fruitful concept of defense against involuntary conversion. Do not get involved on any level! Once one is involved and allows himself to have feelings, these feelings can be intensi-

fied and used to bring about his emotional collapse.

Sargant treats the problem of consolidating the beliefs following the conversion briefly and unsystematically, an unfortunate neglect because this phase is as important or even more important than the conversion. An unstable convert is of little use to any group. Sargant suggests that the subject is *re-conditioned*, but he does not show how so simple a mechanism as conditioning can account for such complex social be-

havior. He also notes that successful religious or political movements consolidate beliefs by putting converts into small groups in which mutual stimulation and mutual surveillance play key roles in maintaining the new beliefs.

This book is full of interesting ideas and facts. Sargant, intending to 'cast his net widely,' succeeded admirably in doing just that by analyzing a great variety of conversion processes within a single frame of reference; but his physiological model is far from proven.

cepts of intelligence. Here Miner follows and goes beyond Wechsler in dispensing with measurements of rate of learning. For him the standard deviation goes the way of the mental age and the intelligence quotient. The accumulated scientific knowledge of how the individual and the species progress slowly toward fuller degrees of consciousness is separated off from the scientific psychology by the psychometric device of measuring intelligence in terms of a single score on an abbreviated form of the Thorndike Vocabulary Test.

In this choice Miner follows, and again goes beyond, R. L. Thorndike in the scope of application of one part of the research methodology Thorndike has been developing over the years. Miner demonstrates that the scope of predictions for purposes of control is not confinable to the limits of available knowledge. To predict that it is "less probable that any given Negro student (than any white student) will score above the 10th percentile," only 25 Negro students' scores on the vocabulary test, administered by public-opinion-poll interviewers, were required. If enough people read and believe the prediction, educational opportunities for Negroes could eventually become limited enough to make the prediction come true. Only a slightly larger number of such test scores for employed adult Negroes were required for the prediction that "there are apparently very few Negroes who left school at an educational level markedly below that which they might have attained." The becoming true of this prediction might be slower, since it would involve some suppression of the biological inheritance of intelligence in Negroes.

The Premises for Assessing Intelligence

John B. Miner

Intelligence in the United States: A Survey, with Conclusions for Manpower Utilization in Education and Employment. New York: Springer Publishing Co., 1957. Pp. xii + 180. \$4.25.

Reviewed by DOROTHY RANSOM

Miss Ransom is a psychologist in Detroit who works mostly on the cognitive therapy of children. She has had long and varied experience with the design and use of tests—objective, projective, educational, and clinical. She was statistician or analyst in various governmental agencies before she settled down to helping Detroit children. As her review shows, she is a strong believer in scientific measurement and in political democracy, and she sees no reason why the one cannot support the other.

ON the title page, John B. Miner states that he is writing from the position of research associate in Conservation of Human Resources at Columbia University. His subject is a survey of intelligence in the United States, and he promises to arrive at conclusions for manpower utilization in education and employment. He came to this position, and this knowledge, by way of a doctoral degree in psychology at Princeton, where the middle chapters of his book were written "in essentially their present form" as a dissertation. For the survey, he draws upon psychometric and questionnaire data gathered in a proj-

ect financed by the Department of the Army, directed at Princeton University, and conducted by Public Opinion Surveys, a project to validate the Tomkins-Horn Picture Arrangement Test (he is co-author of the recently published book by that title). He compares his research findings with those of other workers in psychology and in related fields, all listed in a 203-item bibliography.

Introductory chapters on the nature and measurement of intelligence, and concluding chapters on implications for manpower utilization, were added later to bring the dissertation to book length—presumably while the author was working at Columbia University, though they reflect more the ideologies of military and industrial management (with overtones of racialism) than of the conservation of human resources.

Advertisements inform us that "this study of intelligence testing and the concept of intelligence gives substance to the growing debate on the validity of existing standards."

The standards in question are those that include the developmental and evolutionary aspects of psychological con-

MINER presents the scientist whose "ultimate aim [in George A. Kelly's words] is to predict and control." By substituting group constructs for "personal constructs," and the management of the psychological factors that determine the governmental processes of a nation for "client management," this vigorous and purposeful younger member of the profession has condensed Kelly's 1218 pages into a slender 180

pages. It might be possible to shrug off the book as not very important, as perhaps an ill-timed and not scientifically accurate work, did it not so clearly reflect, and so greatly magnify, the flaws inherent in that philosophy of science which serves as the frame of reference for an increasing number of present-day American psychologists.

With the cutting off of the biological concepts of slow maturation and evolution of human mental processes, something goes wrong with the time element in human planning. Processes of maturation and evolution give way to planned processes of a revolutionary nature, both in the planning of controls over the minds of individuals (as in "client management") and in the planning of controls over the distribution of the population, a process upon which the democratic governmental process is dependent. (Miner recommends a psychometric model of manpower management, one which by his definition of the conditions under which it could be carried out would of necessity change a democratic into a totalitarian regime.)

Within the frame of reference of a philosophy of science that denies the value of knowing for the sake of knowing, and of communicating knowledge for the sake of increasing the sum of human consciousness, 'scientific' predictions of a propagandistic nature are just as scientific as those that give knowledge of natural laws, for each can equally well be proved to have come true at some later date.

Because of that philosophy of science, it is not inconsistent for the volume to give liberal space in its bibliographical references to the notoriously racially prejudiced writers, J. C. F. McGurk and Henry E. Garrett, while omitting mention of other workers—Gilliland, Benedict, Weltfish, Marcus, Bitterman—who have cast doubt on differences between Negro and white intellectual capacities. Nor was it a non sequitur for it to use, for analysis of the data, statistical procedures that have no logical explanation for their choice other than that they give the impression of a greater than real difference between Negro and white intellectual capacities.

For the Retarded, More Therapy than System

Chalmers L. Stacey and Manfred F. DeMartino (Eds.)

Counseling and Psychotherapy with the Mentally Retarded: A Book of Readings. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957. Pp. 478. \$7.50.

Reviewed by WILLIAM SLOAN

Dr. Sloan is a clinical psychologist, working exclusively for the past fifteen years with the mentally retarded, first at the Lincoln State School in Illinois and then at the State Colony and Training School at Pineville in Louisiana, where he has recently been appointed Superintendent. He has undertaken some experimental work with mental retardates, and he believes that more good work would be done if this field had a firm systematic setting that would yield hypotheses for experimental testing.

THE authors of this book are well qualified for the task they have set for themselves. Stacey is a well-known contributor to research in the field of mental retardation. The second author is experienced in working directly with the mentally retarded in an institution.

The book itself is a collection of forty-nine papers, reproduced in abridged form and grouped into ten chapters. The final chapter, by DeMartino, the only paper written specifically for this volume, is primarily a summing up of the book. There is an author index and the individual papers are footnoted, but there is neither a general bibliography nor lists of references for the separate paper. So references to works cited are generally not available. In such a collection one usually finds unevenness in the quality of writing as well as in the material presented, and the present instance is no exception as the editors disarmingly state. To single out any one paper would be difficult though the *Foreword* by Sarason, and the papers by Burton, Yepsen, and Sarbin are excellent, where-

as some of the other papers are so poorly written that they could well have been omitted.

The first chapter consists of six papers dealing with general problems in psychotherapy with the mentally retarded. Although written with different degrees of excellence, the overview seems to be that in the past the attitude toward psychotherapy for the mentally retarded has been too pessimistic, but that things are different now. The succeeding chapters consist of six papers on counseling and psychotherapy, three on psychoanalytic methods, three on group therapy, seven on play therapy, two on psychodrama, four on speech therapy, seven on vocational-occupational-industrial therapy, and eleven on counseling with parents. Any anthologist of such a selection of topics could be criticized no matter how he allotted the space. This reviewer's criticism would be that too many pages are devoted to parents and their problems. There is no question about the need and desirability for counseling with parents, but does that topic belong in this book? Another curious inclusion is vocational-occupational-industrial therapy in a book on psychotherapy. And if this inclusion be justified, why is recreational therapy omitted, although it would appear to be more appropriate?

THE aim of the editors is to present material that "would be useful to counselors, therapists, psychologists, psychiatrists, general medical practitioners, teachers, parents of the mentally retarded and lay persons." This is a for-

midable array and *some* material may be useful to *some* of these groups, but no group could be expected to utilize all of it profitably. Since this review is addressed primarily to psychologists, the book's contents can be assayed in a psychological framework.

For the applied psychologist working in this field there are some good papers on psychotherapy and the counseling of mental retardates. Good discussions of goals and techniques are presented. The presentations of cases are especially valuable and provide a wealth of leads for setting up research problems. The editors' expressed purpose of stimulating research is well achieved. The basic elements for developing hypotheses are available for the clinician with an experimental urge. It is precisely this point that perhaps sums up the present status of psychotherapy for the mentally retarded. Advocates for special techniques are not lacking, case materials abound, exhortations are plentiful, but sound testable hypotheses are conspicuously absent, and the well-designed experiments are even farther away. This field is ripe for a keen, organizing, synthesizing, analytic student who can bring some order out of an amorphous conglomeration. The unique contribution of this volume is that it pulls together what we have up to now and says, in effect, "where do we go from here?"

The psychological reader will be disappointed by the absence of a discussion of the problems of psychotherapy, in general, as they relate to the mentally retarded. Much is being written about psychotherapy and many problems persist. Questions of efficacy of techniques, criteria of improvement, design of experiments for evaluation, etc., still abound. Yet this volume is written as if all these matters were settled and the only problem is extension of therapy to the mentally retarded. Actually, many of the problems of psychotherapy with the mentally retarded are isomorphic miniatures of the problems of psychotherapy in general. Failure to come to grips with them is no fault of the editors, for the reviewer is not aware of any publication of this nature. This may be another piece of evidence indicating the embryonic status of this field.

For the psychologist working with the mentally retarded the book is a valuable compendium of information, much of it practical and applied in nature. For other psychologists, especially those with academic interests, the main impression is most likely to be that little

is actually known. Nor will the critical reader with a passion for well-designed experiments find much to interest him. This reviewer believes that the volume will be of most interest to the nonpsychologists, especially to intelligent parents of the mentally retarded.

A British View of Personnel Management

C. H. Northcott

Personnel Management: Principles and Practice. (3rd ed.) New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. vii + 428. \$10.00.

Reviewed by ALASTAIR HERON

Dr. Heron is Deputy Director of the British Medical Research Council's Group for Research on Occupational Aspects of Ageing in Liverpool. In general he concerns himself with the whole range of problems in industrial psychology and contributed the chapter on that topic to the 1954 volume of the Annual Review of Psychology. He is against insularity for Britons, thinks they had jolly well better not forget what the psychologists in the States are doing.

THE author of this comprehensive *Traité de la gestion des personnes* is the doyen of the personnel management movement in Great Britain. It is therefore not surprising that despite an MA from Sydney and a PhD from Columbia, he is clearly concerned to write a book which will contain a good deal of the background material likely to be needed by his British readers. This limitation has potential value for industrial psychologists and personnel workers in North America and elsewhere who would like to know something of the framework within which their British counterparts are engaged. Such readers may not, however, feel content that so high a proportion of the author's examples are drawn from a single large factory, even though it be world-famous. This is the Rowntree Cocoa Works at York, where Dr. Northcott was for many years the

labor manager. True, the voluminous reports of the Hawthorne investigations have caused it to be said that "never in the field of human relations has so much been written by so many about so little." Though certainly not a parallel, this instance may perhaps be regarded as a precedent.

The author is well disposed toward the methods of industrial psychology but devotes little space to their evaluation. This neglect may be the result of his feeling that these methods should not be used by personnel managers themselves, who should "find men and women into whose hands [such methods] may with confidence be put." It is a pity that the author does not say plainly that such men and women should be psychologists with adequate graduate training in the industrial field. In a section on *systematic promotion* he makes reference to ratings, interviews, and psychological tests but gives no examples of their use for this purpose. One is left wondering if any of these data will prove to be of much value.

The plain fact is that Dr. Northcott is more concerned with social philosophy than with psychological method—even when in dealing with some topics (such as wage structures) he is giving detailed procedure. His philosophy emerges at last in his statement

that "this book is based on two postulates. Recognizing, first, that the true purpose of industry and commerce is to produce goods and supply services, it passes on to argue that this purpose is a social achievement to be attained effectively by managements which are ready to control and direct the activities of their human agents by sound social principles." One such principle has appeared earlier where he states, under the heading *The Leadership of Management*, that "complete honesty is a powerful dynamic in industrial relations."

This volume is not a description of the streamlined product to which we have been becoming accustomed. There is a trace in its style of the late nineteenth century. Some sections are by way of being industrial lay sermons. If you are asked, however, to recommend a short book list for budding personnel men, then pair this one with the two best American ones you know and beg students to distill their own philosophy from the mixture. They will need patience, but it could be repaid by a notable increase in breadth of outlook.

After an introductory chapter on the *Aims and Curriculum of the Elementary School*, the author undertakes an integration of learning theories. Starting with conditioning, trial and error, and insight, he reduces these concepts to two by combining the two last-named into one which he calls *problem solving*. From here, he identifies the two theories with Mowrer's conditioning or stimulus substitution, and trial-and-error or response substitution. The former, he suggests, needs only Guthrie's Law of Contiguity as a sufficient explanatory principle; in the latter, he deems the Law of Effect to serve a similar function.

As deductions from and elaborations of this theory and of his definition of learning, Frandsen formulates a "practical outline of learning principles" or seven essential conditions for effective learning at the elementary-school level. He designates them *Maturity* and *An Appropriate Pattern of Abilities*, *Teacher-Guidance*, *Practice*, *Perception of Effects*, *Transfer*, *Motivation*, and *Freedom from Emotional Disturbances in Learning*. The major portion of the book that follows deals with each of these seven conditions in detail, citing, whenever and wherever available, pertinent researches to explain and support the discussion. In addition, there are chapters on appraising and providing for individual differences, appraising school achievement, learning theory as related to the task of the elementary teacher and remembering and forgetting.

THE author does not make entirely clear how he derives his seven conditions of learning from his integrated learning theory. In fact, it is difficult to see why these conditions could not have been derived equally well from any one of the current learning theories or even formulated without reference to a particular theory. It seems to the reviewer that the book would have been just as strong without the attempt at integration of learning theory. The succeeding chapters are interesting, generally sound, and practical. Frandsen is at his best when he discusses for teachers how they can apply

Educational Psychology with a Scientific Base

Arden N. Frandsen

How Children Learn: An Educational Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957. Pp. xiv + 546. \$5.50.

Reviewed by VICTOR H. NOLL

Dr. Noll is Professor of Education at Michigan State University. He has been tied up with education all his professional life, with surveys, research, and teaching, at Minnesota, where he obtained his PhD, at Teachers College, Columbia, at Rhode Island State College, and now for twenty years, except for a brief time with the Navy, at Michigan State.

DR. FRANDSEN has been Professor of Psychology and Head of the Department of Psychology at Utah State Agricultural College in Logan since 1936. He has a Bachelor's and a Master's degree from the University of Utah and the PhD in psychology from Minnesota. He has been school psychologist in Utah, clinical psychologist in Minnesota, and a member of the faculty at the University of Utah and Purdue University. He is a diplomate in Clinical and a Fellow of the Division of Educational Psychology. His major interests are in intelligence and learning.

And he sets out in this book to fill a gap between the scientific principles of educational psychology and the art of

understanding and teaching elementary school children. To do this, he develops from the literature in child psychology and elementary education "an organized and interrelated set of scientific principles which will have maximum practical value to teachers in their guidance of children's learning." It is to his credit that he undertakes such an ambitious and important task and that he achieves a marked degree of success with it.

The literature of child psychology and elementary education is extensive and is as marked by divergencies and gaps as it is by its volume. To try to develop a reasonably complete and unified educational psychology even for elementary teachers alone, one which is based entirely on scientific literature, is certainly not going to be a completely successful venture. Inevitably the author finds himself obliged to round out his treatment by drawing on personal experiences or even just plain horse sense. Indeed, it seems that in our present state of progress, a treatise based only on available scientific evidence would not turn out to be a very useful textbook.

the results of scientific studies and accumulated experience to a classroom situation. He marshals his facts and data efficiently and presents them convincingly. The integration of learning theories, on the other hand, seems an unnecessary discussion, and not too convincing a one. It is, moreover, doubtful that the argument will be very meaningful to most young women in institutions preparing for teaching in elementary schools, or, for that matter, to the more mature who have gained some practical experience.

THE important contribution of this book lies in its attempt to present a simple and generally acceptable discussion of the contributions of educational and psychological research to the work of the elementary teacher. This in itself is a great undertaking and the author has on the whole accomplished his purpose very well. Especially fine, in the opinion of this reviewer, are the chapters on *Maturity and Learning*, *Transfer of Training*, *Remembering and Forgetting*, *Providing for Differences in Abilities*, and *Appraising School Achievement*.

A few minor criticisms are in order. The author occasionally introduces more or less technical terms and expressions without definition or explanation. Sometimes these items are defined in the Glossary, but sometimes not. When they are defined, a parenthetical "(see Glossary)" might be helpful; where not, some explanation at the place of introducing them would be desirable. Then there are passages that leave something to be desired with respect to their clarity and completeness. For relatively untutored readers, such as those taking a first course in educational psychology, such passages convey little useful knowledge.

The book is generally well written, interesting, and practical. It is illustrated with many attractive photographs of children in actual school or play situations. It will find a place among current textbooks in educational psychology as a substantial and useful member of that growing family.

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THE *Dryden* PRESS

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The Variety of Behavior in Disaster

Martha Wolfenstein

Disaster: A Psychological Essay. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957. Pp. xvi + 231. \$4.00.

Reviewed by STEPHEN B. WITHEY

Dr. Withey is Research Program Director of the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center, and he is also an Associate Professor. He once helped General Patton move from western to central Europe, receiving instruction in behavior under stress in that laboratory. Nowadays he works on the public's reaction to international threat and advises defense agencies about disaster. He has a monograph on Reaction to Uncertain Threat expecting publication shortly. His larger concerns are with communication and influence, interaction between persons and groups and the public.

PERSONAL disaster that contorts the customary patterns of behavior has been a fruitful and necessary topic for psychology, but a description of the mental processes and behaviors accompanying widespread disaster, when personal stress is compounded, is of unusual occurrence in the psychological literature. Wolfenstein, a researcher, teacher, and psychotherapist, utilizes the theory of personal disaster, which for her is largely psychoanalytic, to explain the data on communal disaster.

Never does she forget to apply thinking about personal disaster to the interpretations of personal reaction in what might be called social disaster. Nor does she shun the responsibility of submitting all her data to the scrutiny of her theoretical orientation. Her coverage of fact is extensive, and the psychologist interested in personal or social reactions to disaster conditions will find this book both stimulating and readable.

There is no reason to think that the complete disorganization of one's surroundings and the experience of non-supportive feedback for one's most

customary expectations does not still involve those reactions to stress that are typical of adaptation to personal, idiomorphic tragedy. It is likely, however, that many of the notions that are, or at least should be, in social psychology are needed as adjuncts in the psychology of personality before reactions to disaster are thoroughly understood, predicted, or ameliorated.

Since the objective possibility of man-made disaster has increased and been reflected in official anxiety, considerable research now focuses on human reactions to disaster. Wartime data have been re-studied and re-evaluated. Peacetime disasters have been studied with varying breadth and intensity.

Five monographs, which are part of this stockpile of research material, were reviewed in *CP* (July 1957, 2, 192-194) by Chapman. As background to his comments, Chapman outlined the origins and functions of the Committee on Disaster Studies of the National Academy of Sciences—National Research Council for whom the analysis here reviewed was done. This committee has compiled an impressive library of information about human behavior under social disaster conditions.

What we know about behavior under the rigors and tragedies of war is now almost balanced by what we know about behavior during and after peacetime disasters. Much of the latter is documented by on-the-spot observations and interviews with a theoretical focus that, on occasion, has sharpened the data to unusual clarity. Wolfenstein has drawn her interpretations and conclusions largely from these peacetime studies. Very little of this material is in the psychological journals. Thus, for most psychologists, the book will pro-

vide a first look at some research data that have been growing somewhat programmatically over the last decade.

Wolfenstein attempts to "describe and interpret a range of subjective and behavioral phenomena which occur in people involved in a disaster." She tries to elaborate "a number of dynamic hypotheses to account for various reactions to disaster" and "for every phase of a disastrous experience [to] . . . indicate a considerable range of possible reactions."

This purpose is well met. Illustrative examples are richly distributed. Interpretations are discerningly developed with recourse to Freud, Fenichel, Anna Freud, Ernest Jones, Leites, Margaret Mead, Kris, Sperling, and others. No new general theory applicable to disaster reactions is, however, developed. Rather, the various empirically obtained reactions are explained by one or another insightful hypothesis. Thus the major strength of the book lies in the author's highly representative selection of behavior reported in current disaster studies and her suggestive hypotheses regarding the dynamics back of each phenomenon.

WOLFENSTEIN herself states the major limitation of her book, a limitation that puts it into her own well-chosen category, for it is an essay, a type of scientific discourse that she has already used to discuss movies and children's humor:

While we may be able to indicate something of the range of possible reactions before, during and after a disastrous event, we still do not know about the combinations of such reactions or their frequencies. . . . The information is very fragmentary. . . . All the ways of acting and feeling which I describe and the underlying motives which I suggest may be supposed to occur in some people at some times and in some places. *But the question of frequencies, like that of conditions, remains to be decided.*

This reservation is well warranted by the contradictory stubbornness of the data she has chosen. She is called on at one time to explain the awful quiet following Hiroshima and at another, the panic-triggered hubbub of Boston's Co-

PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT. An Approach through the Study of Healthy Personality

By SIDNEY M. JOURARD, *University of Florida*. Written from a positive point of view, this unique book discusses the factors determining the healthy adjusted personality and compares the normal, unhealthy and healthy versions of the trait in question. The sections on expositions of interpersonal relations, love, the self-structure, and conscience are new to the field. 1958, 462 pages, \$5.50

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF RELIGION. An Introduction to Religious Experience and Behavior

By WALTER HOUSTON CLARK, *Hartford Seminary Foundation*. A general survey of the psychology of religion, this new work follows in the tradition of William James, J. B. Pratt, P. E. Johnson, and Gordon W. Allport. Conversion, mysticism, worship, prayer, religion and the abnormal, the psychotherapy of religion, and the social psychology of religion are some of the areas covered in this comprehensive work. Ready Spring 1958

DIFFERENTIAL PSYCHOLOGY. Individual and Group Differences in Behavior, Third Edition

By ANNE ANASTASI, *Fordham University*. Thoroughly revised to include the latest American and European research in biology, anthropology and sociology, the third edition of this authoritative book contains significant new material on such topics as long-range studies of population changes, intellectual functioning in maturity and old age, age differences in personality traits, the relation of perception to personality, and the nature of creativity. Ready Spring 1958

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF ADOLESCENCE

By ARTHUR T. JERSILD, *Teachers College, Columbia University*. An illuminating account of adolescent life and growth, this book focuses attention on the adolescent as a person and on his attempt to discover and accept himself. Drawing on research findings, clinical studies and practical experience, the author integrates three essential approaches to the study of adolescence—the objective approach, the developmental approach, and the personal approach. 1957, 438 pages, \$5.00

INTRODUCTORY CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

By SOL L. GARFIELD, *University of Nebraska Medical School*. This book presents a study of the development and current role of clinical psychology, both as a science and as a profession. Stressing diagnosis, psychotherapy and research, the book also includes significant material on professional problems. The illustrative examples throughout the book are drawn from the files of clinical institutions and a comprehensive coverage of research literature is provided. 1957, 469 pages, \$6.00

The Macmillan Company

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coanut Grove, the heroism of a battle-field incident, and the brutality of survivors of the Titanic clubbing swimmers with their oars. For every reaction there is seemingly also its opposite and, although Wolfenstein offers hypotheses for all, one would be hard put to predict one or the other alternative in advance.

The psychologist unacquainted with the growing disaster literature will be surprised at what people do under disaster conditions. Pictures of panic are highly unrealistic. The "disaster syndrome" of apathetic withdrawal from the situation is only part of the scientific prediction. Wolfenstein covers threat (distant and imminent, denied

and overestimated), impact (in its "aloneness," "near-miss" survival and other aspects), and the many facets of disaster aftermath. In doing so she offers data and interpretations on behavior which are increasingly becoming a focus for the attention of psychologists. From the work of Selye on physiological mechanisms in stress reaction to the two recent books by Festinger on cognitive dissonance, there is a spread of research and theory that is directly pertinent to our understanding of disaster behavior. More books in this broad area are in press. Wolfenstein's book makes a timely contribution to this area of inquiry that slices across most of the domain of psychology.

A few of the authors devote the bulk of their papers to the more semantic and philosophic aspects of the conference subject. The others tend to dispense with these matters in their introductory paragraphs or by occasional later reference, thus freeing themselves for more substantial contributions to the understanding of developmental phenomena that pertain to their given area.

In their own rights the individual chapters are largely of high quality. Together they make a collection that is somewhat heterogeneous even by 'interdisciplinary' standards, and it may be questioned whether, in this book, the global properties of the whole are as useful as its parts. Those who contend that a unification of science is possible through general laws that hold equally for all levels of organization from atom to galaxy may be prompted to search the book for some skeletal essence of the developmental concept that will apply to all systems.

On the other hand, those who believe that all phenomena can be analyzed and explained ultimately in physicochemical terms will find encouragement in Ernest Nagel's chapter on *Determinism and Development*. Here Nagel challenges the doctrine which asserts that global properties appearing in the evolution of a hierarchically organized system can never be reduced to, nor explained by, the properties of the elementary parts. He claims, on the contrary, that the novel, emergent properties can be explained and predicted in principle, provided one has a proper theory both for the given system and for the particular phenomena in question. He cautions, however, that there is no a priori proof that an adequate theory can always be found, nor plausible ground for supposing that man will some day construct a final unifying theory that will account for every phenomenon ever manifested.



The philosophical mind never wishes to win an argument, but rather the truth.

—DAGOBERT D. RUNES



Concepts re a Concept

Dale B. Harris (Ed.)

The Concept of Development: An Issue in the Study of Human Behavior. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1957. Pp. x + 287. \$4.75.

Reviewed by R. W. SPERRY

Dr. Sperry has, since 1954, been Hixon Professor of Psychobiology at the California Institute of Technology. After a doctorate in zoology at the University of Chicago, he was associated in research with Karl Lashley at the Yerkes Laboratories of Primate Biology for five years, and then he taught neuropsychology and neuroanatomy at the University of Chicago for five years more. He has been especially interested in the development of the nervous system as the organ of perception, learning, and memory and in the reorganization of the nervous system in regeneration.

THIS book is the published version of a conference held at the University of Minnesota in 1955 to recognize the 30th anniversary of the University's Institute of Child Welfare. The concern of the conference was not with any special aspect of development nor with development in general, but rather with the concept of *development per se*, particularly with the concept defined as a temporal process involving the organi-

zation of elemental parts into larger functional units or 'wholes.' Following an introductory survey by the editor, the sixteen authors, representing a wide gamut of disciplines including philosophy, biology, psychology, anthropology, languages, medicine, history, social science, and education, discuss individually the use and meaning of the concept of development and related problems in their respective fields. Open discussion is not reported.

The rationale behind the conference plan may be found in part in the strong 'interdisciplinary' trend of a few years ago and especially in the movement for a General System Theory, stemming back to the writings of Bertalanffy and others. The editor indicates that there was no pressure or plan to demonstrate the unity of science on a physicalist basis, nor to expound general system theory; yet one wonders if, in the planning at least, there was not hope that some greater concern would be given these matters than the majority of participants actually gave.

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To make clear the extent of present knowledge and to point out the directions which further research must take, the editors choose from two sources: classical materials which are currently significant, and recent points of view. Several of the papers are newly translated into English. *Ready March 1958*

MOTIVES IN FANTASY, ACTION AND SOCIETY: A Method of Assessment and Study Edited by John W. Atkinson, *Associate Professor of Psychology, University of Michigan*.

This integrated series of articles by forty-one contributors surveys a decade of systematic research into the direct influence of motivation on imaginative processes. It draws from psychoanalytic theory, field theory, learning theory, and the decision-making theory of economics in search of a valid method for measuring socially significant human motives.

Beginning with studies of hunger conducted in 1947, the book examines how the method of analysis has been refined over the years and extended to various kinds of motivation. The range of problems to which the method is here applied has no equal in the psychological literature on human motivation. *Ready April 1958*

BODY IMAGE AND PERSONALITY By Seymour Fisher, *United States Public Health Career Research Investigator, formerly Research Psychologist, Houston V. A. Hospital, and Sidney E. Cleveland, Assistant Chief Psychologist, Houston V. A. Hospital*.

This pioneering study unfolds a fascinating array of cases dealing with a relatively unexplored question: how the individual organizes experiences having to do with his body, and how this mode of organization (which the authors call "body image") affects his behavior.

Specifically, the volume explores the degree of definiteness and strength the individual ascribes to the boundaries or border zones of his body. The authors describe an objective method for measuring this variable by special scoring of Rorschach tests, TAT and drawing techniques. They then develop and test a theory concerning the influence of body image characteristics on the individual's total adjustment. *Ready March 1958*

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NONDIRECTIVE COUNSELING

The Case of Jim

Julius Seeman, George Peabody College for Teachers. 12-inch unbreakable vinylite record, 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ rpm, approx. 42 min., 1957. Available through Educational Test Bureau, 2106 Pierce Avenue, Nashville, Tennessee. \$5.50.

Personality as a dynamically oriented system presupposes self-understanding and appropriate adjustment to characteristic patterns of social and cultural values. The individual, as a person, is assumed to achieve an integrative pattern of behavior in which his basic needs and culturally sanctioned values operate to facilitate intellectual, moral, and social growth, thus allowing for an individual development leading to self-realization and meaningful social behavior.

Certain conditions, either within the individual or his environment, may, however, interfere with the appropriate development of the personality, resulting in most cases in individual and social difficulties that need remedy.

Depending on the degree of personal inadequacy and its social consequences, the process of rehabilitation could be attempted through simple advising, counseling, or psychotherapy. While all three approaches imply a need for reorientation of personality, the degree of self-involvement and self-searching may vary, not only with the condition of the subject but also with the theoretical views held by the therapist or counselor.

The record under consideration presents counseling as a therapeutic procedure through which the individual is helped to achieve a certain degree of self-assurance and social poise through

ADOLPH MANOIL
Film Editor

the growth and adaptation of the personality.

The case of Jim illustrates clearly the nondirective approach to counseling as a means of personality reorientation. Jim, who is in his early twenties, has a speech handicap that interferes with his individual and social adjustment. The development of his personality is seriously affected, and he feels unhappy and inadequate. His speech difficulty has resulted in the warping of his total personality so that he had less need of speech correction than of personal counseling.

The record reproduces characteristic sessions over a period of two years of counseling. Careful listening to the record permits following the case in all its details as to verbal behavior. The case is an excellent example of personality dynamics in which intricate personal experiences can be analyzed and understood. The record presents not only a counseling procedure, but also certain characteristic aspects of the remaking of a person through self-understanding and value reorientation.

It is interesting to note the liberating value of the permissive atmosphere in counseling and the importance of self-searching as a means of adjustment.

The record, as a whole, should prove useful as a demonstration of a counseling technique and even more as an example of personality self-analysis. It could be used in classes in general psychology, psychology of personality, and counseling. It is supplemented with a special booklet: Julius Seeman, *The Case of Jim: An Annotated Script of a Record on Counseling* which contains the script of the record and comments on certain counseling sessions. It is a useful supplement to the record.

Films

PERCEPTION

The Eye of the Beholder

Stuart Reynolds Productions. 16-mm. black and white, sound, 25 min., 1953. Available through Stuart Reynolds Production, 9110 Sunset Boulevard, Los Angeles 46, California. \$150.00.

The problem of perception with emphasis on its social implications is dramatically presented.

The film illustrates the discrepancy between actual situations and their reconstruction through perception. The nature and meaning of various situations vary with the way these situations are 'seen' by different individuals.

The film starts with the presentation of a few demonstrations of visual illusions that prove the discrepancy between objective reality and its reconstruction through the perceptive process.

The way we perceive the world around us varies with both objective and subjective conditions of perception. The 'eye' of the beholder, then, represents a basic factor in the process of 'seeing,' and perception could be defined as a process of re-elaboration of sensory data in terms of previous experiences, motivational orientation, and total situational configuration. Various film sequences illustrate these principles of perception as applied to simple visual illusions and common social occurrences.

A painter in his search for a model goes through different moods and situations that are differently interpreted by different people. To his mother he appears rough and disrespectful, to the cabdriver a crook, to the waiter in the restaurant a lady's man, to the office manager a 'lunatic,' to the scrubwoman of his studio a murderer. All of these interpretations appear acceptable within the context of the situations presented.

The deceptive nature of these interpretations is shown by a repetition of the same situations with slight sequential and content modification. This allows for a reinterpretation of various sequences, each time with different connotations.

The film illustrates characteristic aspects of the perceptive process, espe-

cially with reference to inferred significance or meaning. At the same time it indicates the need for caution in interpreting individual and social situations on the basis of insufficient information. It is also a demonstration of the need for objectivity in the interpretation of social or individual events.

The film could be used as a classroom demonstration on principles of perception and also as a basis for discussion of perception and its social implications.

COLOR

The Nature of Color

Ira M. Freeman, Rutgers University, educational collaborator. 16-mm, color, sound, approx. 13 min., 1957. Available through

Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Bld., Chicago 1, Illinois.

The film presents an introduction to the study of the physics of color. Applications to industry, art, and everyday living are also shown.

COMMUNICATION

Effective Writing

U. S. Government Film. 16-mm, black and white, sound, 18½ min., 1957. Available for sale through United World Films, 1445 Park Ave., New York 26, N. Y. Available for rental through International Film Bureau, 57 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Illinois, and other distributors. Sale, \$34.09.

Written communication and its various aspects within a government agency.

ON THE OTHER HAND



LIMITED GOALS DESERVE RESPECT

In May 1956 *CP* published a review of *The Psychology of Thought and Judgment*. The reviewer stated that D. M. Johnson's book "has no point of view, and its organization is arbitrary, unbalanced, repetitious, and disjointed." Furthermore, "The writing is dull, uneven, and at times downright poor, studded with the dubious ornaments of chapter mottoes and inflated pronouncements." Johnson's attempt to relate the processes of thought and judgment was described as "a hastily contrived vehicle for the author's diverse interests" and even though the attempt provides food for thought, "the selection of this food is indiscriminating and its preparation unpalatable." The review criticizes Johnson because he did not write a history of the psychology of thinking and because he did not "link rational thought to its irrational matrix." In short, the fact that Johnson did not set for himself the goals that Rapaport (David, of course) would have set provoked an unnecessarily bitter review.

In October 1957 *CP* published another review by Rapaport. This time the book was *A Study of Thinking*, by Bruner, Goodnow, and Austin. Many of the criticisms aimed at Johnson were repeated in even stronger terms. The organization of

the book "leads to a redundancy that does not reduce cognitive strain" and what good ideas it does have are drowned "not only by an eclectic tendency to serve too many gods, by an ostentatious erudition, and by catering to what is modish, but also by a curious blend of the forthright, the didactic, the circumstantially cumbersome, the outright repetitious and the preciously urbane. The authors display an uncannily sure hand at snatching defeat from victory." The reviewer's complaints again center around the neglect of history, Europe, and psychopathology. Although "the authors hedge to forestall criticism" and "straddle defensively every contemporary fence," they did not forestall Rapaport.

Both reviews are phrased in language calculated to punish rather than enlighten. These two books are not above criticism, but neither of them merits the measure of scorn heaped upon it. Why did Rapaport write such caustic and misleading reviews? A possible answer can be inferred from the last paragraph of the earlier review, "There must be a social factor at work: something in the atmosphere of our psychological science that is, to say the least, co-responsible." Arguments *ad hominem* are of little value, but it is hard to avoid the impression that Rapaport's fury is directed more toward "something in the at-

mosphere" than toward these two particular books. Other books might have served as well. One recalls Tweedledum, who—when excited—hit everything within reach, whether he could see it or not.

I have studied these two books and used them successfully as texts. I like them both. Thus I assume I must be as much afflicted by this "something" in the atmosphere of our psychological science as Johnson, Bruner, Goodnow, or Austin. In defense of the atmosphere, therefore, I would make the following four suggestions:

(1) One volume does not make a library. It is not necessary for every book to say everything. In particular, it is not necessary for these two books to review the history of the psychology of thinking when this has already been done so expertly by Titchener, Rapaport, Humphrey, and others.

(2) Cognitive psychology has been sick for a long time. It needs any transfusions it can get, whether they come from individual differences, judgment and applied psychology via Johnson or from information theory, game theory, ego psychology, and probabilistic ecology via Bruner, Goodnow, and Austin. These transfusions may not save the patient's life, but that is not an excuse for hitting the doctor over the head.

(3) There is plenty for everybody to do. As a subject for scientific study, thinking is a veritable jungle of untamed phenomena and uncharted processes. Some of us can contribute as custodians of the past, others by conducting experiments. There is work to do in the clinic and the nursery. There are translations to be made from other languages and from other disciplines. There are old theories to test and new theories to build. With so much to do, it is well to feel grateful to anyone who wants to help.

(4) Freud did not settle everything. There is an American point of view in psychology that stubbornly refuses to die, that clings to pragmatism in its most practical sense. It is this point of view that threatens to turn psychology into an objective science. Freud and other clinicians influence this point of view whenever their theories can be translated into meaningful operations that lead to predictable consequences in behavior. Such criteria of evidence may be too narrow and confining for the Viennese imagination, but sarcasm will not change them.

So much for atmosphere. In defense of the authors whose books Rapaport reviewed, I would like to suggest that Johnson wrote a useful textbook and a valuable

secondary reference, and that Bruner, Goodnow, and Austin contributed highly original and stimulating insights both from the laboratory and from the armchair. *A Study of Thinking* represents an advance in our understanding of concept attainment, of the strategies available to a person in such situations, and of the ubiquitous importance of cognitive categories.

I think *CP* owes both books another review, the next time by a reviewer willing to respect the intentions of the authors and the integrity of their work.

GEORGE A. MILLER
Harvard University

BEYOND LAUGHTER

Dr. Martin Grotjahn's book *Beyond Laughter* (*CP*, Oct. 1957, 2, 256f.) is, it seems to me, unusual among books in the field of psychology, for it educates the reader who has that readiness the beneficial experiencing of his own deep-lying childhood longings, so that he has gone "beyond laughter" into the wellsprings of his imagination and creativity. Thus the collaborating reader, "the good reader," as the author calls him, can confirm or disconfirm for himself out of his own elicited inner experiences what the *CP* reviewer thought were arbitrary interpretations. "It is as a source book of creative experiences that the book will succeed, and not so much as a textbook on psycho-analytical aesthetics," the reviewer for *The International Journal of Psycho-Analysis* averred.

Dr. Grotjahn is known as a great teacher of the psychoanalytic attitude, the questing, emphatic, therapeutic penetration into the unconscious—into the ferment of infantile longings. Like all great teachers he has used himself, in his clinical seminars, to exemplify the psychoanalytic attitude, but this *dramatis persona* teaching cannot be reproduced in a book. Yet it is amazing how much of Grotjahn, personally bringing and accompanying the reader into tough with unconscious conatus, has passed into this book.

I am grateful to have been one of his pupils, and I would regret it if because one reviewer missed detecting this incomparable characteristic of a book, the many professional people who receive *CP* and the great number of students and readers who consult it in any number of libraries all over the world as the representative voice of American psychology, would be deprived of knowing that a gratifying and maturing experience with a remarkable teacher is awaiting them.

LOUIS PAUL, M.D.
Beverly Hills, California

THE GOLDEN SPLIT

After reading *CP SPEAKS* in the November issue (*CP*, 2, 279) and wondering whether to possibly assign it to the students of a graduate course in how-to-do-research-and-write-it-up, I was struck by the fact that the editorial hand managed to inadvertently permit a split infinitive in one of the reviews in that issue. Or was it advertent? Had *CP* managed to finally find a split infinitive which fulfilled its challenge of page 279? I refer here to page 297, left column, line 13. Howard White was able to felicitously write: "Similarly in her later discussion of hospital treatment, she attempts to honestly state the strengths and weaknesses the family may expect to encounter." Is the reader to deliberately infer that here is the golden split of *CP*'s challenge's Gordian knot, or not? To intentionally try to variously restate it, do we not tend to somewhat lose the meaning? For example, (1) "she honestly attempts to state" might tend to involuntarily elicit the response, "Really? She *does*?"; (2) "she attempts honestly to state" might not lead the reader to immediately give quite that response, and is therefore perhaps better; (3) "she attempts to state honestly" might tend to slightly impugn the author's veracity, at least by implications, in other places in the book. Unless the editorial hand is too busy to carefully catch each split, can the undersigned venture to unabashedly assume that the split infinitive on page 297 is, in the editor's opinion, superior to all three other alternatives (especially alternative 2)? And that therefore *CP* has at last been able to successfully find the answer to its challenge on page 279?

MICHAEL WERTHEIMER
University of Colorado

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